MAC

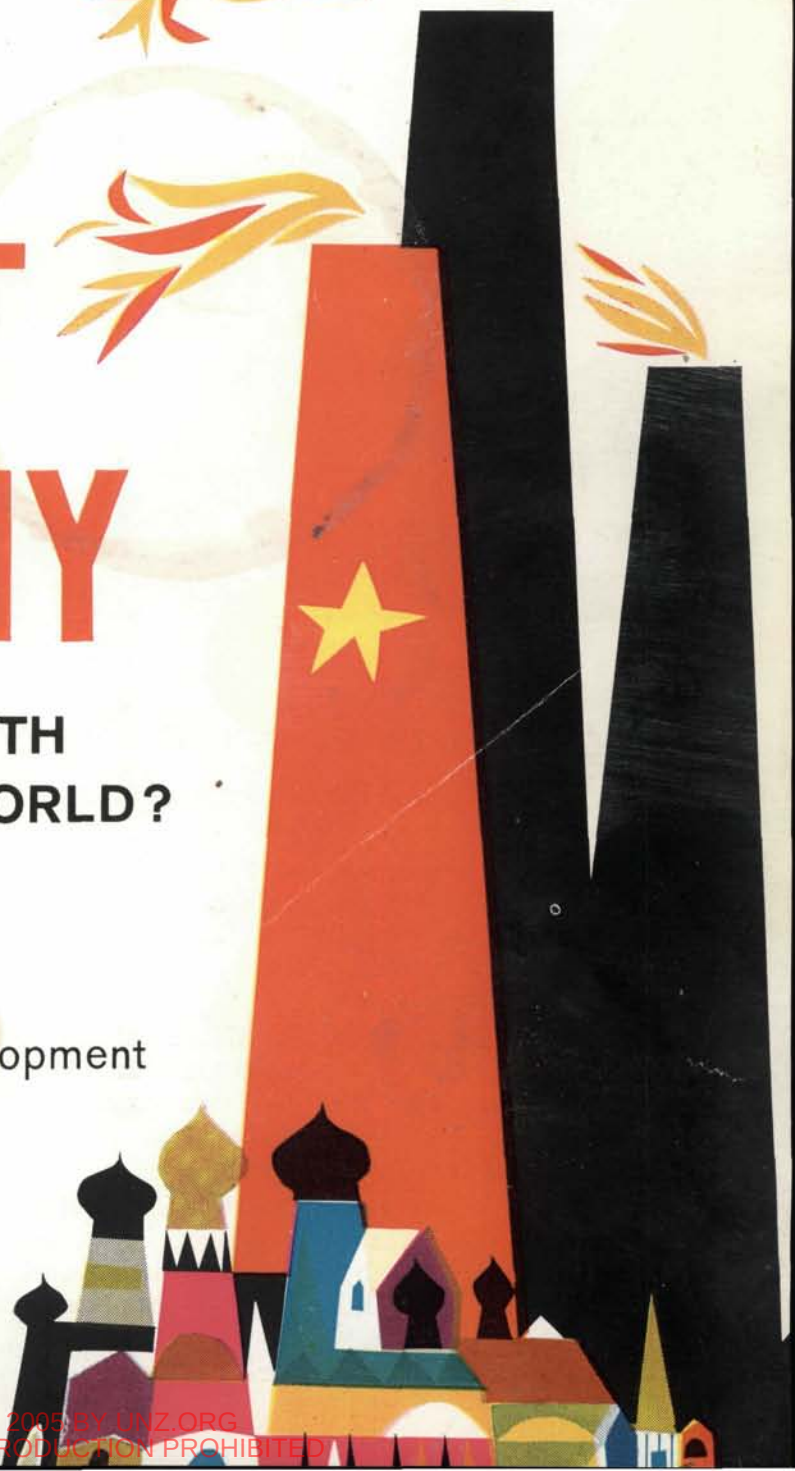
Saturday Review

JANUARY 21, 1961 / 25¢

INSIDE THE SOVIET ECONOMY

WHAT DOES ITS GROWTH MEAN TO THE FREE WORLD?

Exclusive report and analysis
presented with the
Committee for Economic Development



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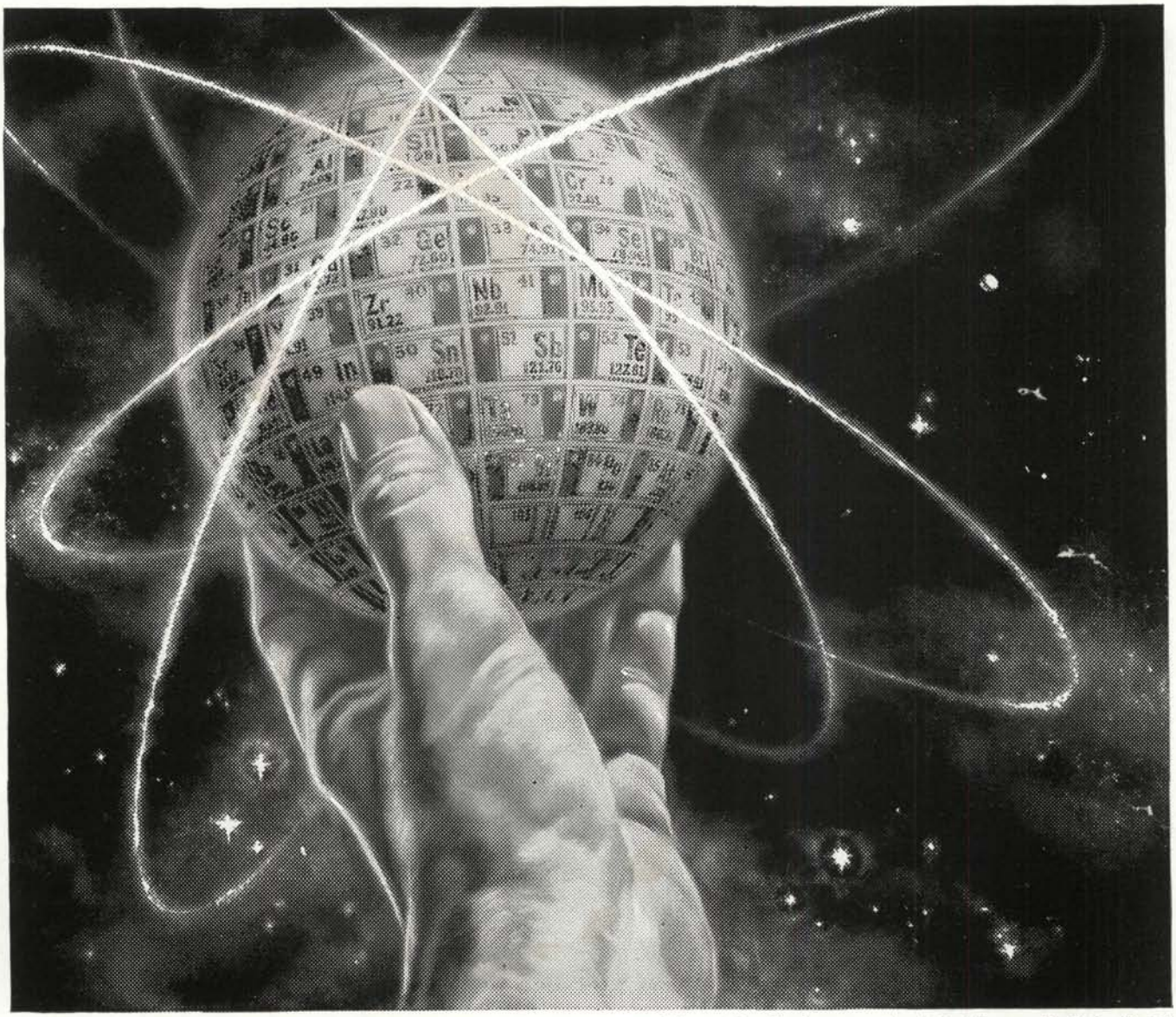

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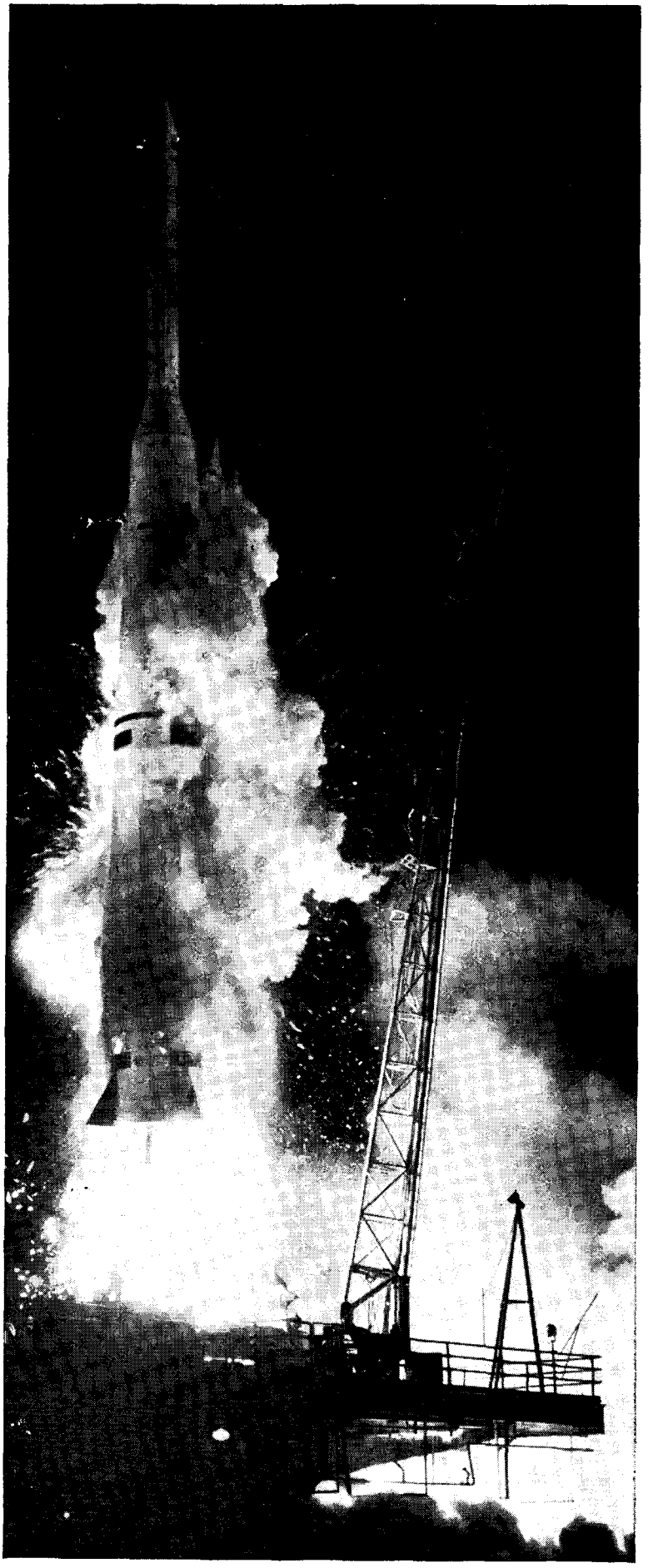

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In meetings, editors often sit around with ideas in search of an author. Frequently, the need is for someone who answers this description: "Must be good writer, good digger (researcher), balanced, honest, able to think through and analyze clearly, and come up with something." The coming-up-with-something is where many candidates are washed out.

Who fills such a bill? Very few authors. John Bartlow Martin, for one. Martin Mayer for another. And a new name enters the lists more and more these days—Richard Carter. His latest book, "The Gentle Legions," is an excellent reason why.

In it, Carter reveals what goes on in the national voluntary health organizations—the groups organized to fight cancer, tuberculosis, heart disease, and other afflictions. It is absorbing reading. I liked the section on the impeccable, tough-minded Basil O'Connor and his National Foundation (having helped to lick polio they've now turned to a new kind of research organization, headed by Dr. Jonas E. Salk, a "potential Olympus of health" to integrate studies of medicine, chemistry, the social sciences, etc). Carter also makes the reasons for the Red Cross' bad publicity as clear as the almost incalculable reasons for its good reputation.

The book is wonderfully interesting, for all of us who are both tapped and confused by the multiplicity of appeals to contribute. It's good too, for The Gentle Legions of the title — the 15 million volunteers, mostly women, who raise the money.

L. L. Day
EDITOR-AT-LARGE

"The Gentle Legions" ($4.50) by Richard Carter is published by Doubleday & Company, 575 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. Copies may be obtained from your own bookseller or from any of the 30 Doubleday Book Shops, one of which is located at 1530 Northern Boulevard, Manhasset, New York.

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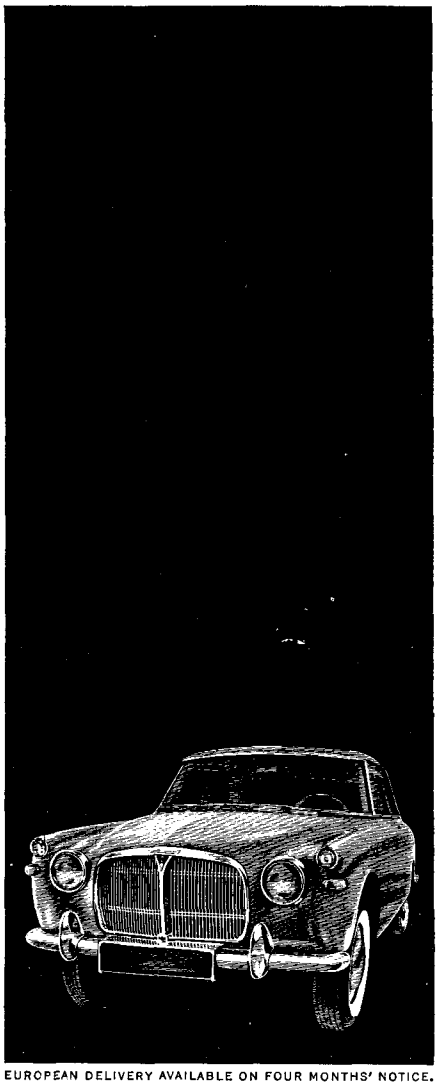

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THE PHOENIX NEST

A Nose for Noose

Edited by Martin Levin

HANGINGS

CRIME is an old hobby of mine. Not as a contributor, but observer. As a reporter I covered a dozen or more hangings. Among the men I saw go through the trap was Teddy Webb—a small, fierce young man who stepped a bit too far out of line even for Chicago. He killed a policeman. His capture was an odd story. An aggrieved girl friend had notified the police that Teddy could be found on the fourth floor of a certain building in the embrace of a blonde if they hurried. The police hurried. Teddy Webb jumped out of bed as the first policeman entered the room. He yelled fiercely at the officer to get out. The officer stared and dropped dead of heart failure.

Twenty minutes later chief of police Herman Schuttler arrived on the scene. Teddy had been caught on the roof. Chief Schuttler put a bullet into the side of the officer whose heart had failed at the sight of the terrible Teddy. "He was shot down in the performance of his duty," the chief told the reporters. We knew better. But that's the way we wrote it—because he was a good cop.

After each of the hangings I reported, my newspaper always received letters protesting against capital punishment. This debate is still going on. Through the wars and massacres of our era people have kept worrying about the ethics of executing a man guilty of murder. It shows how we cling to a theory of civilized behavior while violating it up and down the earth.

The only distaste I feel toward capital punishment is toward the alleged progress in the methods of execution—the use of the electric chair and the gas chamber for the disposal of criminals. A rope and a gun are ancient and even poetic associations of death. Electricity and gas seem miscast as judicious killers.

The introduction of the electric chair and the gas chamber seems to me part of the gadget mania that has gripped the USA since Thomas A. Edison. There is no extra sadism in substituting the hot seat and the cyanide smog for the gallows of song and story. It is more likely merely part of the American drive to remove all evidences of the past from its eyes and ears. The gallows were discontinued in most of our states for no other reason than that they were old hat.

I'm not raising any voice against any modernizing of anything. Even a mutter against the modernizing of life sounds like treason to time. However, there is no onus attached to remembering the softer outlines and quainter face the world once wore. The old gallows chamber, I submit nostalgically, was one of them.

—Ben Hecht.

• • •

AS WE GO WASHING THROUGH EUROPE

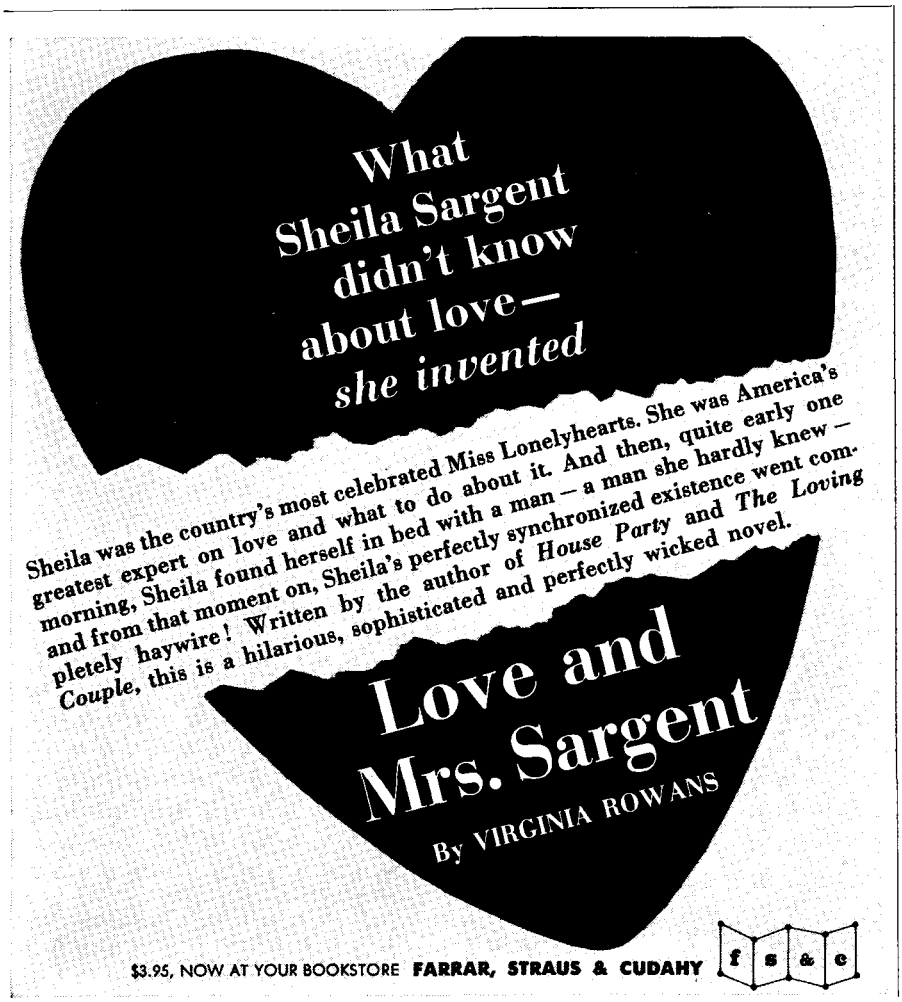
NINETEEN-SIXTY will go down in history as the year hordes of Americans went sloshing through the hotels and inns of Europe and England, leaving a telltale drip to dry behind them.

Men who previously would have scorned the idea of laundering anything less personal than their own epidermis no longer selected hotel rooms because they were on a high floor, had a balcony and the proper exposure. No matter how big and beautifully situated the room, if the bathroom didn't have a satisfactory place to hang the clotheslines, the suite was no good. And they spent the last waking hours of every tiring European day doing their laundry so that they'd be crisp and fresh the next morning, ready for some guide, merchant, or restaurateur to take them to the cleaner.

The average American male doing Europe between April first and August fifteenth carried a complete wash 'n' dry wardrobe consisting of two shirts, two shorts, two pairs of sox, two neckties, two suits, and twenty-five pounds of detergent, hard water soap, clotheslines, clothespins, and a small traveling iron for touching up fussy things like dress shirts with pleats or ruffles. Never in the history of man have so many learned so much about laundry so fast.

And the men did not do all this washing just for the exercise or the novelty of the thing. Their womenfolk also had a wardrobe of wash 'n' dry girdles, garter belts, skirts, blouses, dresses, sweaters, and, of course, stockings to freshen up every night. Some, I've heard, even shaved their heads and

(*Continued on page* 13)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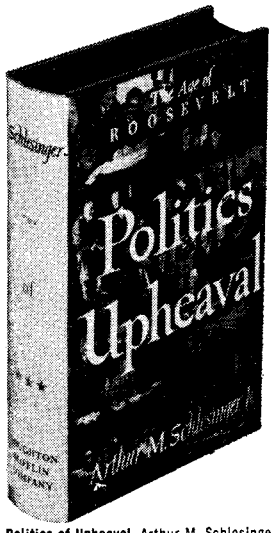

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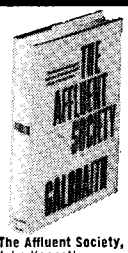

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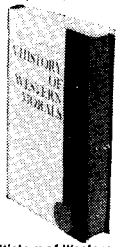

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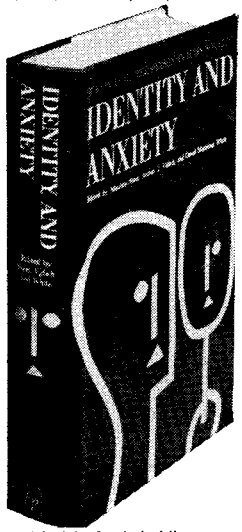

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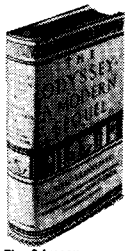

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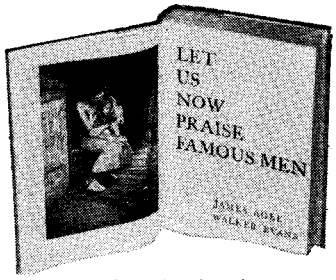

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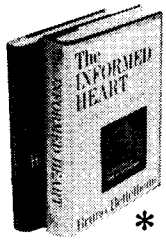

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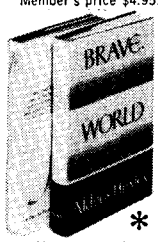

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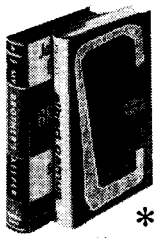

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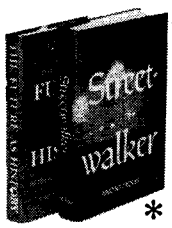

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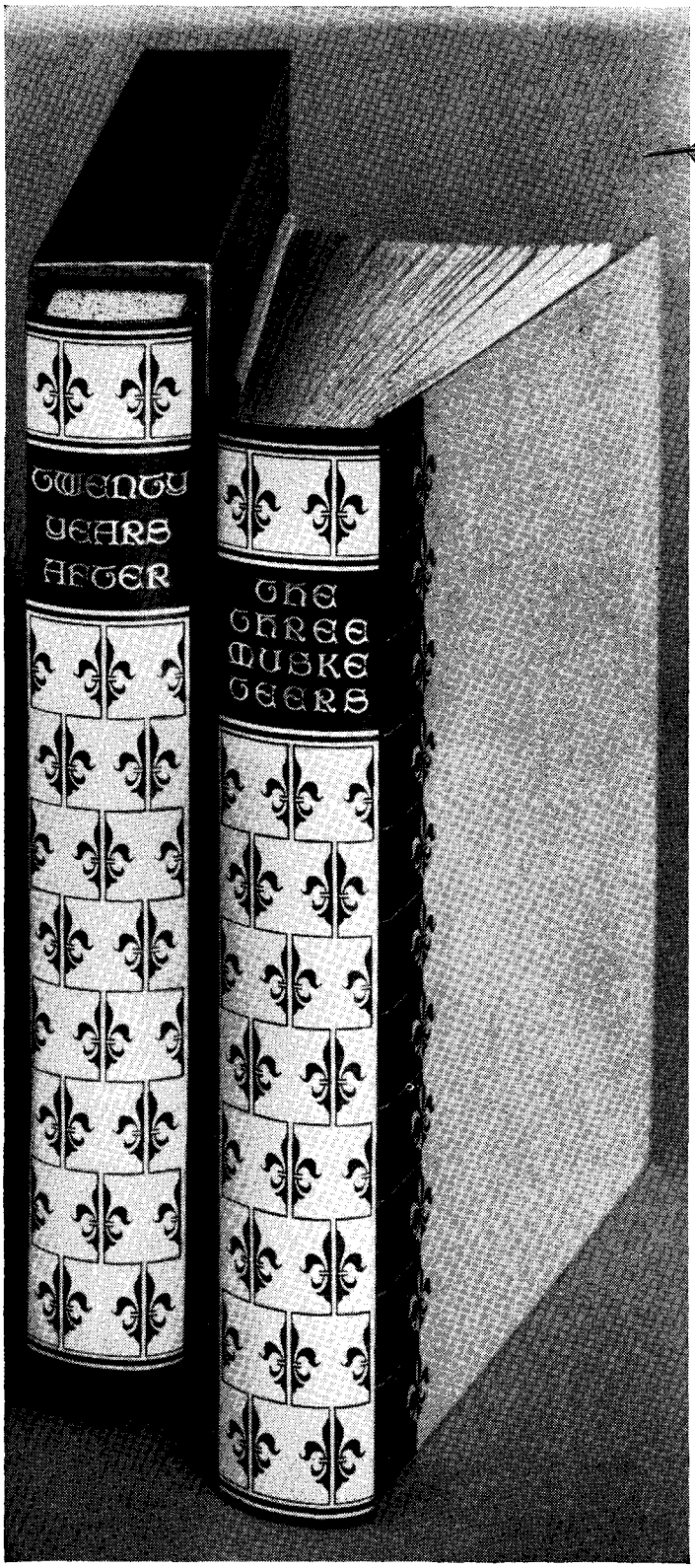

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Continued from page 8

wore wigs of quick-drying acrylic hair. By the time a family of two had finished its midnight chores, it was not safe to enter a bathroom on anything but your hands and knees for fear of hanging yourself on one of the clotheslines. Safety measures demanded that families of three or more engage suites of two or more bathrooms with an adjoining bedroom.

The new problems created by this whole wash 'n' dry situation are, of course, more complicated than the problems that created it, which were simply that airplanes limit your luggage and the so-called French so-called hand laundries of European hotels are neither French nor hand. The work is sent to the Congo where native women beat your apparel white on the rough stones of some rushing African river. Your linen is then dragged behind wildebeestes to the nearest railhead, neatly wrapped, and delivered to your room five months after you've checked out.

So there is a good reason why otherwise *soigné* American society folk from Winnetka, Fairfield County, Grosse Pointe, Beverly Hills, and the classier areas of Dallas, St. Louis, New Orleans, Kansas City, and Van Buren, Arkansas, tear themselves away from their roistering in the plushier places of the continental capitals to rush back to their hotel rooms, strip down, and rinse out an entire wardrobe. If they arrive home too late, as sometimes happens, the first few hours of the next morning are spent walking around in soggy garments. This is both uncomfortable and embarrassing as you tend to leave round, wet marks on bus and taxi seats.

But American ingenuity is certain to solve the whole problem before the tourist season opens in 1961. There is indication already that several large appliance houses are planning to team up with some luggage manufacturers to produce a combination electric washer-drier—with a universal plug to fit all shapes of European outlets and all voltages—that is actually a piece of luggage made of some lightweight metal. In it you'll pack your every traveling need: washlines, soaps, detergents, and, if you're fussy, a folding washboard, ironing board, and iron. You carry your toothbrush in your pocket and you have no need for extra clothes. Each night you simply undress, unfold the suitcase, plug it in, throw everything you took off into it, set it to the proper cycle, and go to sleep.

Next morning your whole outfit will be clean and dry, ready for another happy day of wandering from cathedral to café in search of culture, cognac, and a place to sit down.

—CARROLL CARROLL.

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TRADE Winds

HUNTING FOR an apartment in the city, Sig Greenberg found adjectives instead. A sign at 345 East 56th said: "A distinguished apartment residence."

At 1310 Lexington Avenue: "A fine new apartment residence."

At 150 East 18th Street the sign reads: "New 14-story luxury apartments."

At 785 Fifth Avenue it says: "A magnificent co-operative apartment residence."

ON FORTY-THIRD STREET between Madison and Vanderbilt avenues, in New York City, at five o'clock on the afternoon on November 29, 1960, a juvenile delinquent seized the pocketbook of a lady and ran away with it.

She cried, "Stop, thief!" and ran after him. Other people in the streets took up the chase, exclaiming, "Stop, thief!" until finally a policeman collared the boy, a couple of blocks down the street.

I stood rooted to the ground, fascinated at hearing for the first time in my life "Stop, thief!" being shouted. It proves that, atomic age notwithstanding, the old-fashioned cries of distress are still the best. And the greatest of these are "Help" and "Ouch."

IN HIS ARTICLE about the Canadian author Morley Callaghan in the November 26 *New Yorker*, Edmund Wilson called him "the most unjustly neglected novelist in the English-speaking world." Since Coward-McCann had just published Callaghan's fourth book, "The Many Colored Coat," I asked its president and editor-in-chief, John Geoghegan, to explain. He told me a story that didn't answer my question, but it does show how brave you must be to fight in the front lines of the publishing war.

Wilson was right. Morley Callaghan has been lost to public view for some time. His preceding novel was published in 1951 by Macmillan. His agent, Don Congdon, has said that most of the young editors around New York don't know who Callaghan is. When he showed "The Many Colored Coat" to Geoghegan, however, he took it immediately.

"I first read Morley in the public libraries during the Depression, not having the price of either books or magazines," Geoghegan told me, "and I remembered him well. In fact, it was for me the first instance of being offered a famous name to publish that I had read and admired as a kid. I knew that Morley had dropped from notice, but I had no idea why. I felt that he deserved better treatment. I thought the new novel first rate and knew that Morley was finishing a second. I hoped to start something of a rediscovery for him."

COWARD BROUGHT OUT "The Many Colored Coat" in August and had Morley down to the Algonquin for a cocktail party. "I won't say nobody came," Geoghegan recalls, "but thank God for the loyal office staff. Except for Harrison Smith and Whit Burnett, none of his old New York literary friends appeared. It seemed that Morley was a ghost to most people, and I had the suspicion that they would prefer not to have him popping up like this. After all, he had once been mentioned in the same breath with Hemingway and Fitzgerald in the late Twenties and early Thirties, and regularly appeared in *The New Yorker*. After that the war and descent into obscurity."

For skeptics Jack Geoghegan carries with him at all times a clipping from

a 1936 issue of the *New York Times*. It says about Morley: "If there's a better short story writer in the world, we don't know where he is."

After the cocktail party, Coward-McCann sent out lots of copies of the novel to important names for advance quotes.

"No one replied," Geoghegan told me sadly, "except Erskine Caldwell—an old friend—and Alfred Kazin, who wrote the only glowing report we got on the book before the Edmund Wilson piece. Then we sent out a long biography on Morley to all the literary

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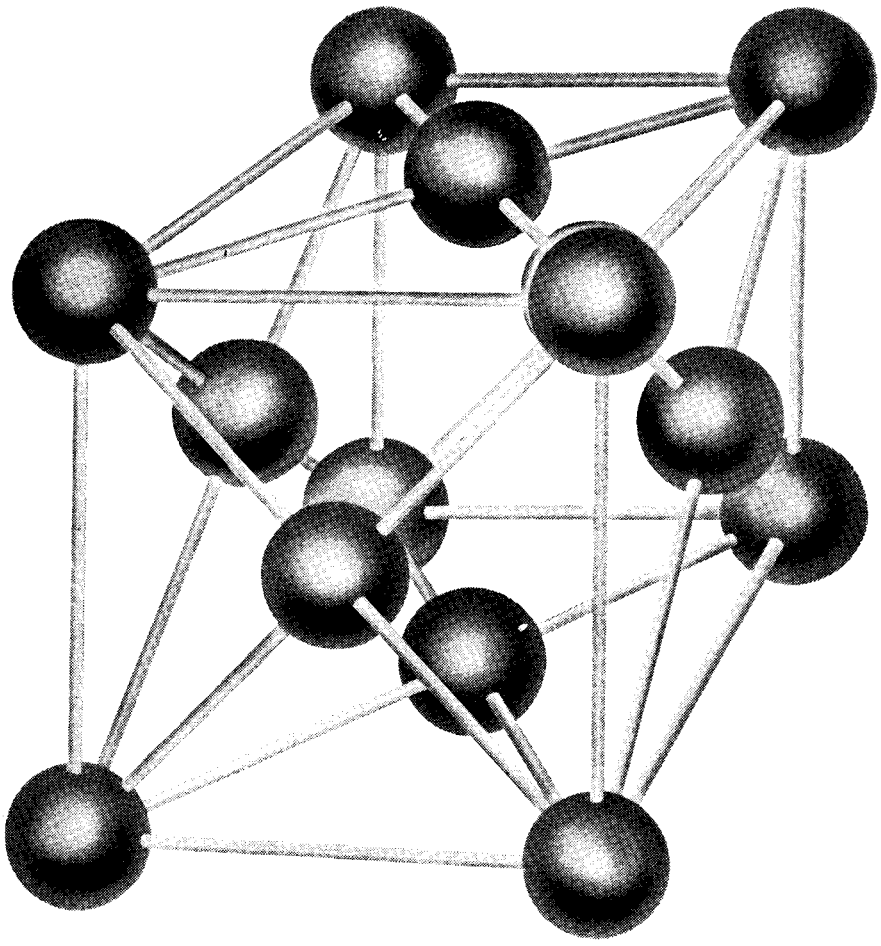

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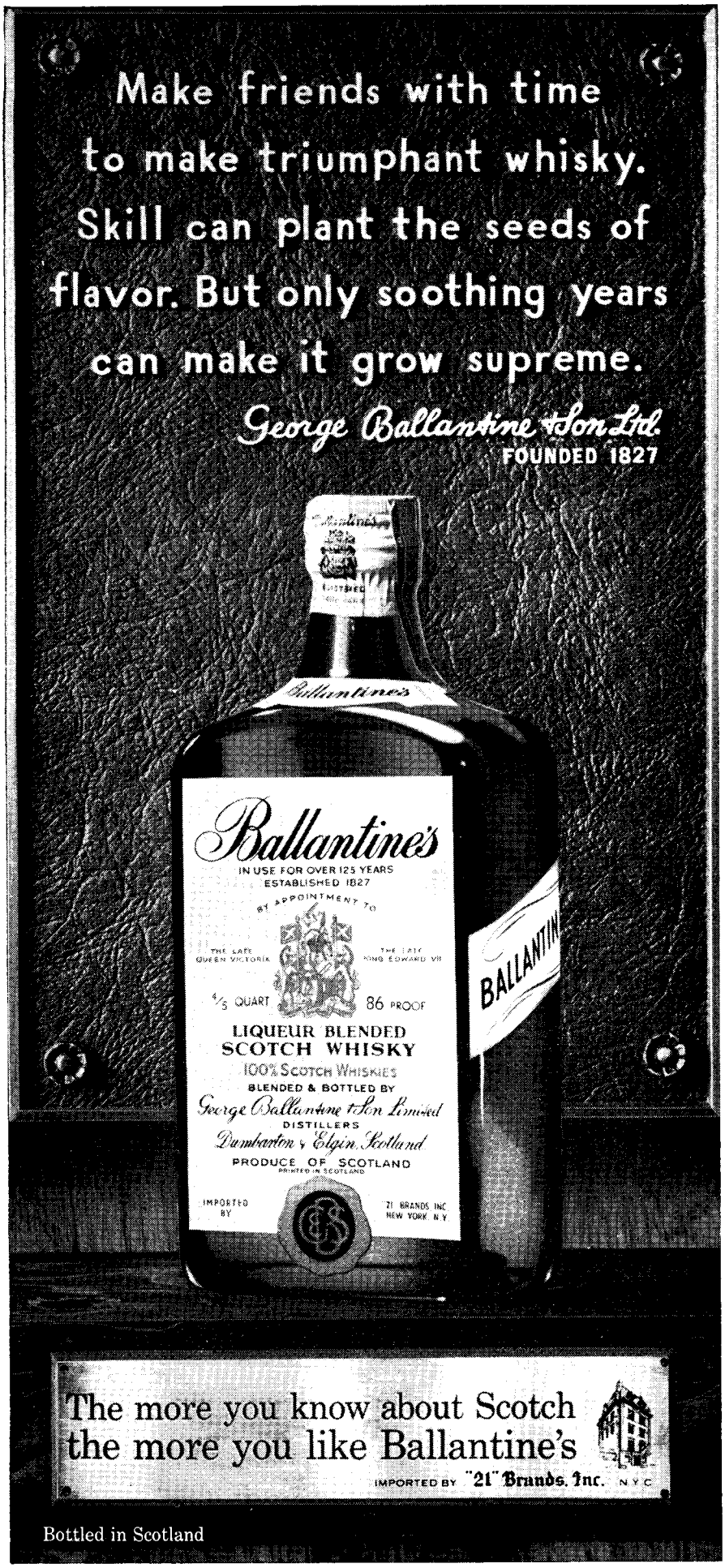

columnists around the country detailing his life from his Paris days—replete with anecdotes about Hemingway, Fitzgerald, Joyce, and so forth—and explaining the long silence between 1940 and 1950. No one picked up a single item except Bill Hogan of the San Francisco *Chronicle*, who ran his column over a headline that said, 'Whatever Happened to Morley Callaghan?'

"Our salesmen got out a good advance and though we waited patiently the reviews were scattered, small, and damned with faint praise. Nobody mentioned Morley's career, his work to date, or anything like that. They didn't seem to know him, either."

IN SEPTEMBER Coward-McCann heard that Wilson had written a long piece about Morley that was to appear in *The New Yorker*. They held their breath and prayed it would come out soon, for the book had barely made a dent anywhere. The piece didn't appear that month or the next. They ran the

ads the budget would permit, but there were no reorders.

"Even the reprinters who had taken 'The Loved and the Lost' in 1951 didn't want this one," Geoghegan said, continuing his sad tale, "and Morley appeared to be forever lost, lost, lost. By November, when the novel was already past the three-month life span given most fiction in which to do or die, Wilson pronounced his historic words.

"I guess I flipped my lid. I sent wires, air mail letters, postcards, and whispered prayers to the magazines, columnists, reviewers, the book trade, everybody, telling them the news. The silence has continued to be deafening. To date we've had reorders for about fifty copies."

If tears had welled into his blue eyes as Geoghegan told me this story, I wouldn't have been surprised. But, exuding the cheerfulness expected of his profession, he concluded:

"For Morley we all tried very hard. Frustration and cynicism have not set in. I am still an eager-beaver publisher."

Although Morley Callaghan told a Canadian interviewer that he had lived "a life of frustration," he is still an eager-beaver author, for he is at work

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What makes a newspaper great?

Prominent among Upper Midwesterners who did *not* eat their hats on the morning of last November 9 is Sidney S. Goldish, director of the Minneapolis Tribune's Minnesota Poll of Public Opinion. Goldish's *experiment in fedora nibbling is for* publicity only (he pronounced the taste 99.7% awful).

In matter of fact, Goldish, Minnesota Poll Editor Robert Coursen & Staff, accurately forecast Kennedy's narrow squeak-to-victory in Minnesota within a whisker-close two-tenths of one percent. The Poll also nailed the Andersen-Freeman gubernatorial race correctly within three-tenths of a percent, a double victory in the art of people-probing that brought personal congratulations to Goldish from the granddaddy of all pollsters (". . . the job you did on all the races was not only wonderful, it was fabulous!" — George Gallup).

Since 1944 the Minnesota Poll has conducted 201 statewide surveys, sampling opinions of more than 175,000 Minnesotans with an accuracy record that has made it one of America's most respected regional polls.

The endlessly-fascinating subject of *what people think* keeps 65 trained interviewers hopping and popping questions while Director Goldish and his staff labor long and late tabulating answers and polishing and pretesting new queries.

The Minneapolis Tribune and the Minneapolis Star think that knowing what people think is a vital function of good newspapers — the best way to keep pace with opinions, tastes and concerns of readers in these changing times. Such extra efforts have earned for these newspapers the largest audience of regular readers in the 3⅓ state Upper Midwest.

MINNEAPOLIS **STAR** EVENING

Minneapolis **Tribune** MORNING & SUNDAY

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JOHN COWLES, *President*

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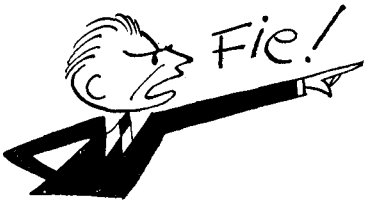
79 Garden Street, Cambridge 38, Mass.

on two more novels. One of them, "A Passion in Rome," will come out later this year and give Jack Geoghegan another chance to try very hard for Morley.

SCHEDULED FOR APRIL by Putnam's is a military history of the Arab-Israeli War, written by Netanel Lorch, a young officer who served in the Israeli Army. The editors were stumped for months for a title, and finally agreed on "The Edge of the Sword." But while they were still casting about, the book went under the working title of "Blintzkrieg."

IDDZIES AND ODDZIES: Nancy Paul says she likes what goes on here, but she does not like the word "iddzies" nor even the word "oddzies" very much. She hasn't come up with anything better, so there we are.



► Someone asked Dick Bissell if he was making any money on the big hit, "Goodbye, Ava," and he said he wasn't. Not because it isn't selling well, but because he is making so much money already.

► Among the places Gurney Williams has visited, he says, are Barber, Maine (a summer resort); Mammy, Florida (winter); Saddle, Washington; and Nagger Falls.

► They report from Norfolk, Virginia, that an emergency call sent a patrol car racing through the streets looking for a small boy lying unconscious on the sidewalk. When the officers reached him and raised him up, they asked what was wrong.

"I was sleeping," he said.

"Why on the sidewalk?"

"That's where I was when I got tired," he replied.

—JEROME BEATTY, JR.

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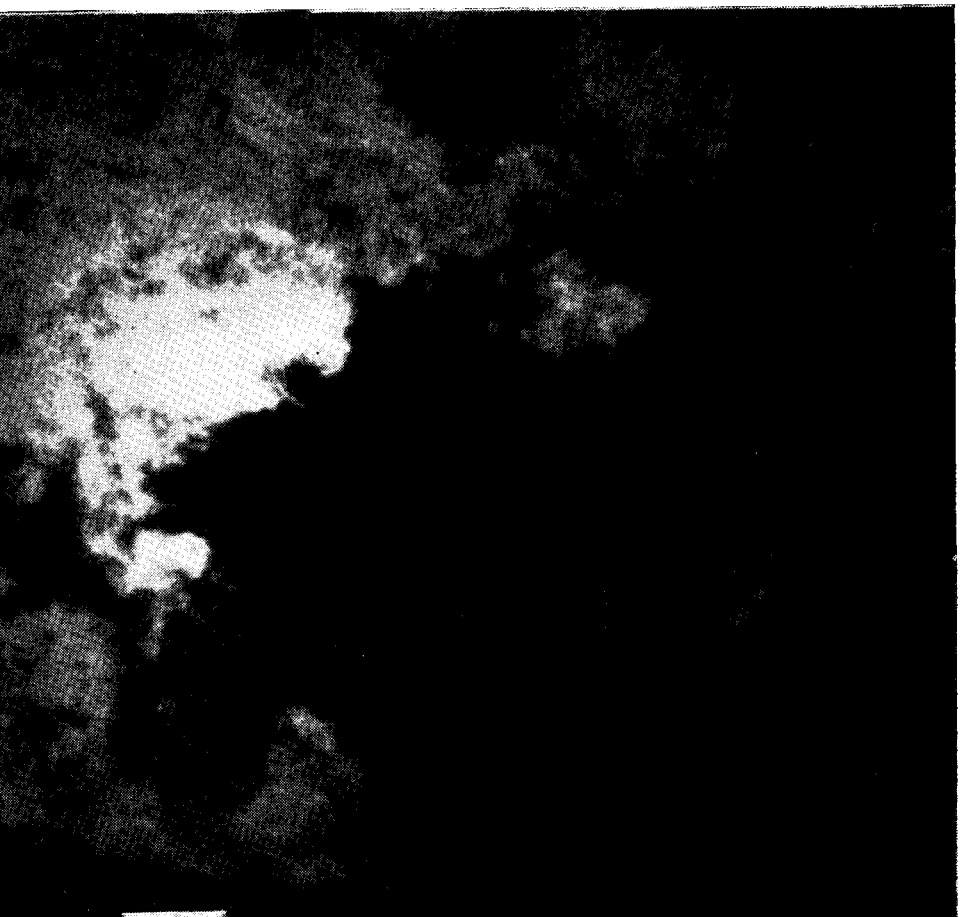

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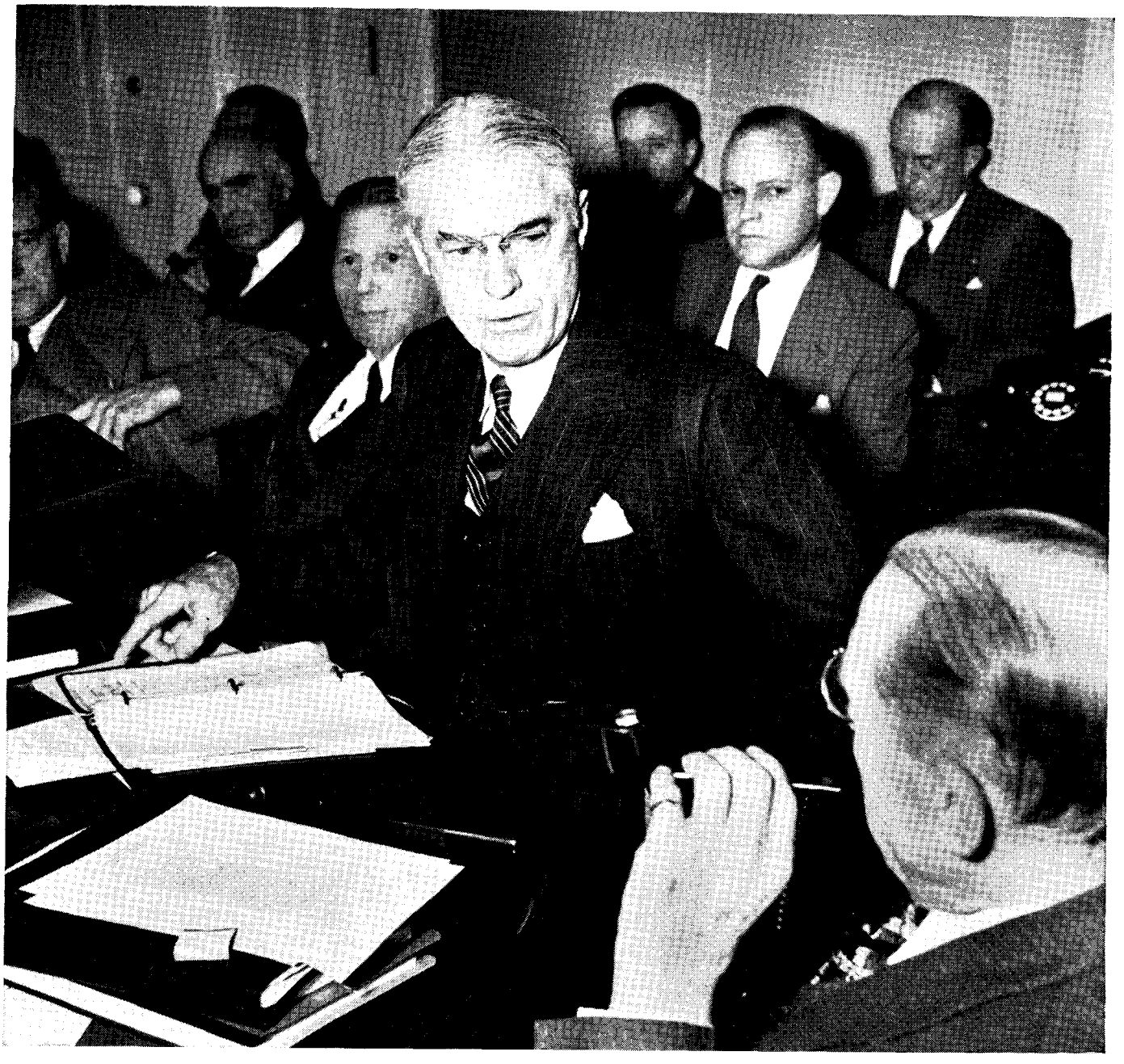

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Saturday Review
JANUARY 21, 1961

INSIDE THE SOVIET ECONOMY

THIS ISSUE of *Saturday Review* is devoted to an important and interesting theme—the Soviet economy, its growth, and what it means to the free world. How this issue came about is also interesting and, I think, important.

The articles on the following pages are adapted from off-the-record talks presented to the annual meeting of the Committee for Economic Development and here published for the first time. The authors are six distinguished economists who spent one month in the Soviet Union under the auspices of the Committee for Economic Development, studying the sources of economic growth in that vast and perplexing country.

These articles are the result of an unusual experiment in the cultural exchange program that, in spite of the cold war, has been conducted between the U. S. and the USSR.

A year ago five distinguished Soviet economists, the first of their profession to do so, toured industrial plants and universities of the U. S. to study American sources of growth.

This venture began in January, 1959, when the Executive Committee of the Committee for Economic Development dined with First Deputy Premier A. I. Mikoyan in New York. At that affair, as a consequence of consultation with the State Department, we suggested that some good results might come if an exchange of American and Soviet economists could be arranged on a basis that would guarantee full and free observation and discussion by both groups.

Deputy Premier Mikoyan, who was here on his famous "trade" mission, agreed enthusiastically to the project. Much correspondence ensued. Then, during his visit to Washington in October, 1959, Premier Nikita Khrushchev personally endorsed the program that CED had prepared.

The CED is a national committee of leading businessmen and educators who work closely with outstanding scholars in our universities to promote research and education and develop economic policies for the best interest of the nation. The American tour of the Soviet economists followed this pattern.

With the cooperation of friends and trustees of CED in New York, Boston, Chicago, San Francisco, and Washington, D. C., and of leading economists at Columbia University, Harvard, MIT, and the Universities of Chicago, Berkeley, and Stanford, an exciting and comprehensive tour was arranged.

The leader of the Soviet Delegation was Professor Anushavan A. Arzumanyan, director of the Institute of World Economy and International Relations of the USSR Academy of Sciences. This institute is a relatively new establishment that conducts the principal Soviet research on capitalist economies.

The other economists were: Dr. Kirill N. Plotnikov, director of the Institute of Economics of the USSR Academy of Sciences, a former Deputy Minister of Finance and for three years Soviet representative on the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East; Dr. Modest I. Rubinshtein, a senior staff member of the Institute of World Economy and International Relations; Dimitri M. Kukin, professor of economic history, Moscow State University; Vladimir A. Vinogradov, lecturer in economics, Moscow State University; Vladimir M. Kolontai, interpreter and senior assistant at the Institute of World Economy.

The American hosts opened their doors to the Soviet economists and told them the story of growth as it was occurring in many places. They took the Soviet economists to the sources of the statistics by which we measure our progress—statistics, by the way, with which they were familiar.

In New York they went from Wall Street to Morningside Heights, from Madison Avenue to Seventh Avenue (where private enterprise in the form of small, competitive business thrives lustily in the garment industry). They were shown the wonders of the newest electronic computers and they

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sat in solemn conclave with such economists as Arthur Burns, former chairman of the Council of Economic Advisers and head of the National Bureau of Economic Research.

As they crossed the country they met ordinary people in suburban homes and workers of the Detroit assembly lines in housing developments. They talked with millionaires and government officials ranging from the experts of the Federal Reserve System to the chief of the antitrust division of the Department of Justice. They saw the monuments to our affluence—and they visited our slums.

What was the result of this tour—which was an "exposure in depth" (as one observer called it) to most if not all of the aspects of growth factors in the U. S. economy? I think the visit was best summed up by one who accompanied them: "They came as Marxists, and left as such; but in the interim they conscientiously observed many important aspects of American life, carefully selected to reveal the sources of growth in the United States economy. If they were not convinced of our superiority, they were at least impressed with the strength, vitality, and prosperity of America."

They went back to Moscow with at least a new and, I am sure, very human understanding of the statistics of our economic system which they continuously study with such care. But I think Dr. Arzumanyan's observations also go to the heart of this endeavor.

"The differences in ideology," he said, "let themselves be known and they must let themselves be known. You should not expect us to change our philosophy and we do not expect your group when they come to the Soviet Union to change their basic position. We must recognize each other's basic position and our differences, and go on from there to find fields of common interest and possibilities for cooperation."

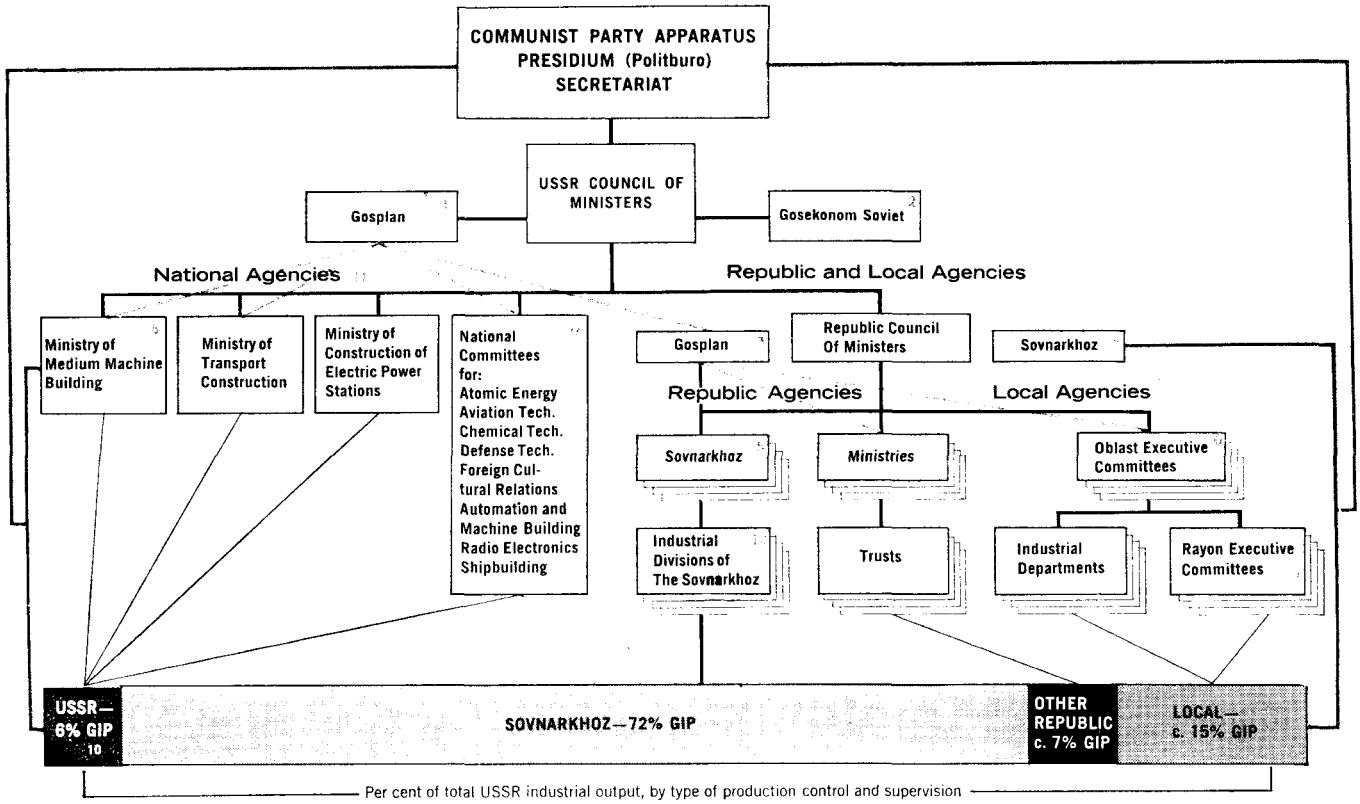
The contributors to this issue of *Saturday Review* tell of the return visit, give their impressions of the Russan people, and interpret the Soviet statistics—which, I am sometimes afraid, we do not always study as carefully as we should.

The contributors are: Professor Gregory Grossman, Department of Economics, University of California; Dr. George Terborgh, Research Director, Machinery and Allied Products Institute; Dr. Herbert Stein, Director, Research Division, Committee for Economic Development; Professor Theodore W. Schultz, Department of Economics, University of Chicago; Dr. Leon M. Herman, Soviet Affairs Division, Library of Congress; Dr. Floyd A. Bond, Director, Business-Education Division, Committee for Economic Development; Dr. Hans Heymann, Rand Corporation (it should be noted that Dr. Heymann did not accompany the group on the tour).

The issue also includes excerpts from a talk to the CED by Per Jacobsson, managing director of the International Monetary Fund, on gold and the balance of payments.

DONALD K. DAVID, *Chairman,*
Committee for Economic Development.

Organization of USSR Industrial Administration



CONTROL
SUPERVISION

1. State Planning Commission (National)
2. State Scientific--Economic Council (Long-range planning agency—no production control or supervision or current planning)
3. State Planning Commission (Republic)
4. Regional Economic Council
5. Plural of Sovnarkhoz
6. Provincial governments (Oblast = Province)
7. County governments (Rayon -- County)
8. Includes the USSR Atomic Energy Agency and Military and Civilian Atomic Production
9. Planning and Policy Agencies, not Production Agencies
10. Gross Industrial Production
11. Strategic, centrally directed portion of output that is so critical it is kept under direct central supervision
12. For instance, the Iron and Steel Industry Division of the Sovnarkhoz of Kharkov
13. Governmental organizations with production control only over commodities both produced and consumed locally

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PLANNING: BACKBONE OF A NATION

By GREGORY GROSSMAN

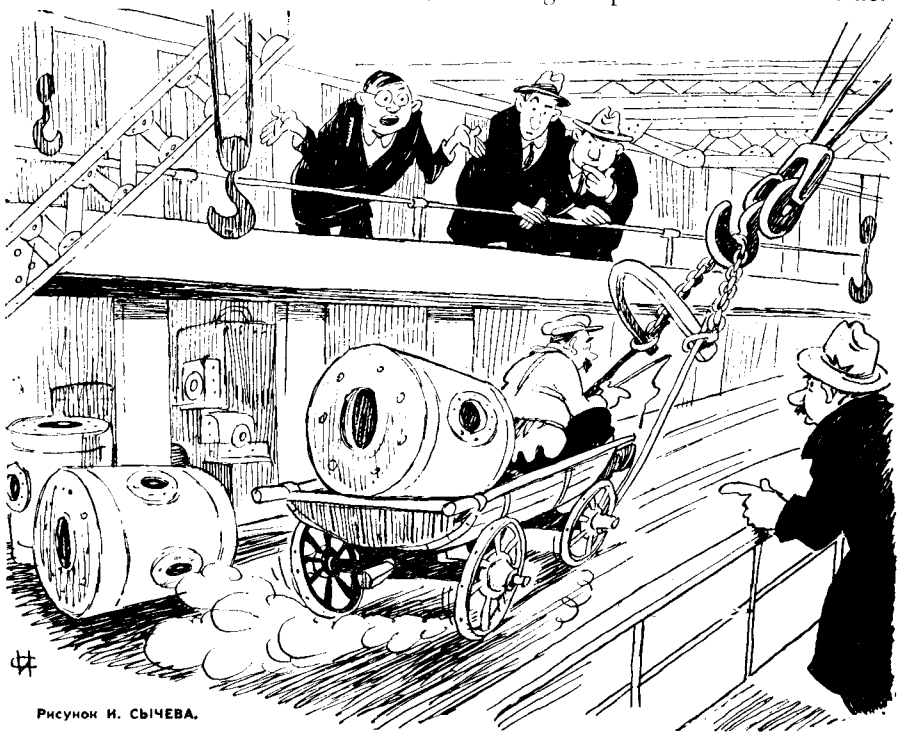
LIKE ANY giant organization, like any large American corporation for that matter, the Soviet economy is constantly in search of new and more effective organizational forms. In the Soviet case the problem is unusually complex, though at bottom it amounts to a quest for a tolerable compromise between two opposing sets of considerations. On the one hand, the extremely high degree of resource commitment, the urgency of the regime's goals, the stringent enforcement of the regime's political will, and the maintenance of a minimum balance in the absence of a market require a high degree of central supervision and guidance. On the other hand, prompt adjustment to changing conditions, the harnessing of local initiative and ingenuity, effective innovation, and the avoidance of the costs and delays of overcentralization demand that decision-making be to some degree delegated and dispersed. Under Stalin, tight political control, rigid priorities, and extremely high resource commitment were emphasized. Hence the highly centralized organizational structure which emerged in the early Thirties underwent only minor alterations until his death. As with many other things, Stalin only repressed the need for organizational reform; he did not abolish it.

Since 1953, his successors have been tinkering with the organizational structure, although their reforms, significant as they have been in some respects, have not amounted to a major decentralization in any basic sense. More often the tinkering involved the centralization of certain functions simultaneously with the decentralization of others, or a complicated redirection of the chain of command and the channels of communication. Noteworthy in this regard has been the abolition, in 1957, of most of the so-called ministries that had been in charge of industry for some thirty years, and their replacement by regional economic councils (*sovnarkhozy*). The latter, as we were indeed told by their officials, took over most of the ministries' functions and responsibilities with respect to industry and construction in their districts. The enterprises themselves received hardly any additional powers in the process. And it should be stressed, moreover, that the reforms of the last seven years have *not* introduced a market mechanism into the Soviet economy to any substantial degree (except possibly to some extent in the collective farm sector).

The forces pressing for decentralization within the Soviet centrally directed (nonmarket) economy would seem to be strong and growing. They stem from successes so far attained as well as from a realization of past mistakes. Thus the very growth of the economy is continuously augmenting the costs of extreme centralization as it rapidly increases the range of choices to be made, the number of products to be considered, and the multitude of interconnections to be kept in mind by the central authorities. Greater reliance on indigenous technology calls for local decisions, while the rising level of competence of managerial and technical staffs renders it at once less necessary and more difficult to curtail their powers. And, lastly, the growing attention to the satisfaction of consumer needs, qualitatively as well as quantitatively, demands greater decentralization in this area, to provide better and faster transmission of consumer desires to the actual producers and prompter reaction by them.

Yet the centralizing forces continue to assert themseves too. While the military, economic, and political contest with the West continues at a high pitch, the Soviet economy's resources continue to be heavily committed and even overcommitted (though less pronouncedly so than before), the strong central controls persist in order to insure their purposeful and priority-directed employment. Moreover, so long as the market is not given much play, central controls continue to be indispensable to maintain some correspondence between supply and effective demand.

Our previous impressions that there is a strong penchant for self-sufficiency on the part of the Soviet economic units tended to be confirmed. For instance, the so-called Chief Administration of Local Industry under the Leningrad city government, which we visited, is one of the five Chief Administrations in charge of production in the munici-



—"*Krokodil*."—*Published in USSR.*

"How is the transport?"
"Completely mechanized!"

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pality (as distinct from the *sovnarkhoz*). The five together account for about one-eighth of the aggregate value of industrial output within the city limits (nearly all the rest is under the *sovnarkhoz*), and the Chief Administration of Local Industry itself for only a few per cent. Nonetheless, it is a substantial operation. Subordinated to it are sixty-five enterprises containing a work force of 27,000, and it produces metal objects, electrical goods, chemicals, yarn, knit goods, haberdashery, and other products. It contains product-line departments and an array of functional ones, such as the technological department (safety, new technology, etc.), a central accounting office, a financial department, and so forth. All this is to be expected. But it also contains an engineering design bureau, apparently for the design of its own new plant and installations, a construction organization to build and repair its own structures, a central materials testing laboratory, a vocational school for mechanics, three nurseries or kindergartens, three children's summer camps, and an "institute for the improvement of managerial skills" maintained on the government budget.

We had several discussions that threw light on the growing importance of consumer demand in the determination of production programs and in the thinking of managers and administrators. An official of the Moscow city *sovnarkhoz* put it concisely when he said, with some emphasis, "Before, we simply distributed consumer goods; now we have to sell them." The same person told us that the *sovnarkhoz* would like to establish its own retail outlets for the marketing of its consumer goods, so as better to acquaint customers with its products and to sell them more effectively.

Interesting in this connection is a dispute between the *sovnarkhoz* and the Ministry of Trade that was described to us on the same occasion. It seems that the *sovnarkhoz* recently began producing a new brand of soap, in addition to its old and well-established brand. Although its producers believe it to be a superior variety, the public was slow in accepting it, and the inventory of this product has been mounting rapidly. The *sovnarkhoz* charges that the Ministry of Trade, which directly or indirectly controls the retail outlets, has not been promoting the sale of the soap vigorously enough and insists that the Ministry do so. The Ministry is not inconvenienced by the producer's rising soap stocks—our source stressed that nothing could be done to make the Ministry take the goods against its wishes—and refuses to advertise. The *sovnarkhoz* itself does not advertise "because it is not our function." The *sovnarkhoz* is further constrained in that it has little say about—and in most cases probably little interest in—the retail price, which is set in the case of the more important consumer goods by the Price Bureau of the USSR State Planning Commission (Gosplan) and in other cases by the Ministry of Trade of the given republic.

On several occasions we were told in some detail of the major role played by the Ministry of Trade or one of its wholesaling organizations in the determination of the assortment of consumer goods produced. This is not an entirely new role but it may well be rising in importance. It seems that Gosplan and other planning authorities set the factory's production plan in rather broad terms: so many tons of soap or of candy, or so many pairs of hose, for the year. These targets must be met, but within each category the detailed production program is largely determined by the quarterly orders submitted beforehand by the wholesale distributors. The exact assortment is apparently negotiated between the parent *sovnarkhoz* and the wholesalers' representatives, with only indirect participation by the factory. The individual factory's quarterly production plan is then adjusted to conform to the results of these negotiations.

OUR attempts to have further light shed on this process were not very successful. To what extent is the *sovnarkhoz* active or passive in its negotiations with the wholesalers? One can easily imagine the distributors adjusting themselves to the producers' convenience, rather than the producers responding appropriately to demand; indeed, traditionally the former has been common in the Soviet economy, though some redressing of the balance may be under way. Other difficulties may be expected to arise from a hybrid process in which each element imposes its own — and often incompatible — incentives and criteria of success. The Soviet press continues to bear testimony that all is not working smoothly in this respect.

We had a fair opportunity to look into the spatial organization of the Soviet economy. Among the six cities we visited are the capitals of four of the country's fifteen constituent republics and the seats of no fewer than seven *sovnarkhozy*. (Moscow houses two *sovnarkhozy*, one for the city itself and one for the surrounding province.) It is perhaps easy for a Western economist to underrate the importance of the problem of formal spatial organization for the Soviet economy. A market economy such as ours by its very nature shuns clear-cut, not to say formal, regionalization. Yet large American corporations often do face this problem, as do many government and military organizations. Some insight into the Soviet cases can be obtained from their experiences. Briefly, the Soviet economy must choose between a formal product-line ("departmental," as the Russians call it) structure and a regional one, and in the latter case it must also choose the size of the regional unit. Each alternative has something to commend it; an ideal solution is not to be expected.

The *sovnarkhoz* is the closest thing to a "firm" in Soviet industry, although it is of course neither independent nor autonomous in any real sense. The individual factory (or "enterprise," as it is often called with dubious accuracy) is still limited in its powers largely to the technical side of production. The *sovnarkhoz*, on the other hand, not only has very broad powers over the same technical matters, but also appoints (or confirms the appointment of) the enterprise's top personnel; to a substantial extent determines its production program (though within the broad targets laid down from above); takes an active hand in the introduction of new products and processes, and in the setting of prices for new products; reshuffles funds, equipment, materials, and to some extent also personnel, within its jurisdiction; negotiates in a commercial way with other *sovnarkhozes* (city industrial administrations); arranges for the supply of scarce materials; conducts research and checks on the quality of products. It also takes an active part in long-term planning for the region—as for instance the long-term shift away from heavy equipment and toward precision equipment in the city of Moscow that was decided upon by higher authorities on the *sovnarkhoz*'s initiative.

Thus the *sovnarkhoz* exercises very close and detailed control over its enterprises, which it carries out primarily through its major subdivisions, the product-line "chief administrations." The range of industries under a *sovnarkhoz* is typically very wide, and the gross value of its industrial output is of the order of ten billion rubles per year on the average, with the largest regions accounting for many times as much. Consequently, even the hundred-plus *sovnarkhozy* in the country would not seem to be too many for the "span of control" of each, and it is not surprising that in the Ukraine, which accounts for about one-fifth of the USSR's industrial production but until recently had only one-tenth of the *sovnarkhozy*, their number was recently raised from eleven to fourteen.

The undependability of supply, espe-

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cially in earlier years, has contributed to autarchic attitudes on all levels. But while the supply situation may have eased considerably in recent years—and we were so informed in a few places—the very growth of the economy leads, under Soviet conditions, to regional autarchy because it makes it increasingly difficult to plan and control the economic machinery from a single center. Willy-nilly the problem of central direction is being farmed out to the republics and provinces, in a process that can be better termed "deconcentration" than "decentralization." The republic becomes the main operative level in this connection, and its Gosplan the key organ. The relations among republics are beginning to resemble a system of multilateral barter, with the union (federal) Gosplan acting as the central clearing house and arbiter, and with a good deal of bargaining.

The process of annual plan construction was described to us by Mr. Ziiadullaev, the young and obviously able chairman of the Gosplan of Uzbekistan. His organization begins the formal annual planning process upon receipt of so-called Approximate Estimates (*primernye priderzhki*) early in June from Gosplan in Moscow. These indicate by way of first approximation the amounts of certain major commodities, some forty or fifty in all, to be produced by, supplied from the outside to, and (apparently) supplied to the other regions by Uzbekistan. This is followed by a meeting of the heads of all republic Gosplans at the union Gosplan, which our host openly described as a bargaining session. This in turn is followed by a set of similar Approximate Estimates passed down by the Uzbek Gosplan to the Uzbek *sovnarkhoz* (there is only one for the republic) and to other economic-administrative entities. Presumably a bargaining session on this level takes place next. By July 1 the *sovnarkhoz* submits its draft plan for the next year to the republic Gosplan, and the latter submits its draft plan to Moscow by August 10. In September or October the republic's plan for the next year is supposed to be confirmed by Moscow, and the individual enterprise is to be informed of its annual plan in November, at least according to the timetable. Throughout the discussion our host stressed the key role of supply. The union Gosplan distributes allocations for scarce commodities to the republic Gosplans. These in turn allocate to the *sovnarkhozy* under them, and they allocate to the individual enterprises. One infers that the bargaining at all levels revolves largely around the supply allocations: "I can give more of this if you give me more of that."

Americans on Tour

WE WENT to the Soviet Union to learn what we could about the process of economic growth, and particularly to seek lessons that we might bring home. We did not discover that the Soviets had any special secret of economic growth. They know that if you make large investments—broadly defined to cover investment in research and education as well as in productive facilities—a high rate of growth will result. They are making the investments and getting the growth, and we found no reason to think they will not continue to do this. At the same time, we saw no evidence that they get more growth for their investment than we do, except for the mathematical advantages that backwardness gives them.

There is a large Western literature about the impossibility of planning, arguing that a central planning administration cannot make in an optimum way the millions of simultaneous decisions necessary for efficient production and distribution. Our observation confirms this. But our observation also raises the question whether the deficiency from the optimum is critical. Certainly we saw no evidence of the possibility of anything like a "breakdown" of planning.

I was impressed by the disregard of the consumers' sector in the Soviet economy. It is not simply the well-known fact that the fraction of total output devoted to consumption is smaller than in the West. It is rather that the resources devoted to consumption are badly used from the standpoint of pleasing the consumer. There are also other reasons. The best creative talent of the Soviet Union does not go into the consumers' sector. A persistent sellers' market is maintained, with prices controlled but without rationing, so that shopping is time-consuming and unpleasant. Also because of the sellers' market, producers have little incentive to make goods attractive. The lack of contact with the West, and the absence of any elite class of consumers, also contribute to the generally low standards of consumers' goods. ,

The reports in these pages cannot of course convey all the vivid and puzzling experiences we had with Soviet life. A few additional examples seem to me to suggest something significant about the system.

After an overnight train trip from Kiev to Kharkov we checked into our hotel, the best in town. While we were waiting for our Soviet host, one member of our group asked me how old I thought the hotel was. He guessed it was 100 years old. I guessed it was four years old. When our host came he assured us that it was indeed four years old. The one technique that semed to be original in the USSR was that of constructing old buildings from scratch.

On the overnight train we had two compartments for eight people—six of us and two Russians. When I retired, my three American roommates were in their bunks; all of the lights were out except one in the ceiling. I tried all the switches, but couldn't turn the ceiling light off. I then rang for the porter and asked him to turn out the light. Very simple, he said, with which he set up a ladder, mounted it, and unscrewed the bulb.

The observation that I regard as most important, however, has to do with the spirit and quality of life. There is little *joie de vivre* in the Soviet Union. If I try to project myself into the shoes of the Soviet citizen, his life seems drab, dull, tasteless, graceless, conformist, devoid of individuality, creativeness, or independence. He seems to have little interest in expressing himself or enjoying himself, in the clothes he wears, the furnishings of his house, the food he eats, to say nothing of his opinions or his tastes in art or architecture. This fact, which has of course been observed by others, seems to me of great significance. It seems to me that the release of the individual human spirit to express and enjoy itself is the great thing the West has to offer the world. —HERBERT STEIN.

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The Rise of Technology

By HERBERT STEIN

SINCE Lenin's dictum about the role of electrification as a key to the achievement of Communism, technological advance has been a crucial element in the process by which the Soviets hope to enter the promised land. If anything, technological advance has been given even greater weight by Khrushchev than by his predecessors.

As far as we could observe, the big push in Soviet technological advance, the effort by which they expect to catch up, is directed to the widespread application of the best-known techniques, rather than to extending the frontiers of knowledge. We tried, at various places, to find out how the planning of the economy took account of the uncertain future course of technological change. The answers always tended to belittle the uncertainty involved, and to emphasize those new methods that had at least passed through experimental operation. We also inquired about the principles and methods for making rational decisions on the scale and direction of research, in view of the uncertainty of the results. How does one decide how much of what kind of research is likely to justify the cost? This was always interpreted as a question about the decision to invest in capital facilities embodying new but known techniques, which is quite a different matter. The only answer we ever obtained on the results of research was the vague assertion that everybody knows research is a good thing.

We often tend to think that the great concentration of concern on the application of existing techniques is peculiarly appropriate to the present state of the Soviet economy. After all, they are the ones who have to catch up with the superior techniques of the West. But the Soviet example raises two questions for us. First, are we so sure that a similar emphasis on application is not appropriate for us? Even though our technology is closer to the limits of existing knowledge than is that of the Soviet Union, our best plants have not yet reached the present limits and our average plants are well behind the best. Our problem may be to catch up, not with the Soviets, but with the best-known techniques. One can conceive of a competition between economies where the one that has the most advanced technology in operation is not the one that develops knowledge fastest but the one that applies existing knowledge fastest. In more general terms, it seems reasonable that a system whose goal is to grow rapidly relative to another system should devote more effort to application and less to research.

A second question raised by the Soviet example is whether we have correctly gauged the amount of effort required to transfer an existing advanced technology to an underdeveloped country. This is entirely aside from the problem of the availability of capital. The Soviets are obviously devoting very large quantities of scientific and engineering talent to the task. Seeing this, one must ask whether the scale of our technical assistance programs for underdeveloped programs is adequate to the job.

A common question about centrally planned systems is whether they can provide enough freedom for new ideas to be generated and tried. One would probably have to work in such a system to answer that question accurately. Nevertheless, a description of the organizational arrangements in the Soviet Union may provide some clues. The institutions for directing and carrying on research and innovation may be divided into five categories.

FIRST, at the level of the Council of Ministers, there are a number of committees making decisions about the scale and direction of research and development activities. These include Gosplan, the State Scientific-Technical Committee (GNTK), and several more specialized bodies. In allocating resources to research institutes and enterprises, Gosplan supervises the research plans of these bodies, trying, among other things, to avoid duplication. GNTK also approves research plans. In addition, it often proposes to research institutes specific subjects for inquiry and controls the work undertaken. Such intervention, we were told, applies only to research of importance to the entire country.

Second, there is the Academy of Science network, consisting not only of the USSR Academy but also of academies in the various republics. At this level are also found the Academy of Agricultural Science and some other specialized academies. The Academies are relied upon for the most original, creative work. They provide scientific advice at the highest political level and are influenced, in the direction of their work, by the priorities determined at the political level.

Our group visited Institutes of Economics of the Academies of Science of the USSR, and of the Ukrainian, Georgian, and Uzbek Republics. The similarity of organization, subject matter, and general approach among the four was striking. We were told that the USSR Academy exercises leadership over the Republic Academies in methodological matters. But the uniformity we found in our economic research may not be typical of less ideological subjects.

Third, there are over 1,000 industrial research institutes, design bureaus, and construction bureaus engaged in industrial research and engineering separately from any producing enterprise. These bodies were attached to the various industrial ministries before the reorganization of 1957. They are now mainly attached to the *sovnarkhoz*, or regional economic council, where they are located. Some of these organizations are doing routine drafting jobs, but others are doing advanced work—designing new products. Some of these bodies are located at plants in the industries with which they are concerned, but they are administratively and fiscally independent.

The independent industrial research institutes in this category are financed from three sources—the state budget, the funds of the *sovnarkhoz*, and their own earnings from contract work for enterprises. In Kharkov we were told that the distribution of the funds from these three sources was in the proportions 25 per cent, 25 per cent, 50 per cent, but that the ratios were not uniform throughout the country.

Fourth, there are laboratories, engineering departments, and testing stations at producing enterprises.

Fifth, in the Soviet literature considerable emphasis is placed on the contribution of the lay worker to improving technology by making suggestions on the job. These millions of sources of initiative are said to be one of the special advantages of the Communist system, as contrasted with the capitalist system, in which workers allegedly do not have the same motivations. There is an elaborate setup of committees in Soviet factories for eliciting workers' suggestions, for which rewards are given. There is even a Society of Rationalizers and Inventors to which the worker can appeal if he

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—Sovfoto.

Mining engineers in the USSR keep abreast of the latest technical developments.

thinks that the reward is inadequate.

This system is difficult to evaluate. My own impression, however, is that while everything is subject to review and approval by someone else, in a chain leading to a top central authority, the structure is not really monolithic. It leaves a good deal of room for individuals to originate ideas, including ideas for adapting or applying existing knowledge, and to experiment with them. The number of persons and institutions with some research capacity is too large, the chain of command too long, the sources of finance too diffused, to suppress this. And it does not seem to be policy to suppress it. We heard often about the need to avoid duplication in research. We were told that they did not want to discover America twice—an interesting figure of speech since they are so anxious to discover it once. But we also saw some recognition of the value of competition in research, of having different angles, as well as recognition that this would happen even if not planned.

Probably more serious for the Soviet system than failure to generate new technological ideas at an adequate rate is difficulty in getting them incorporated into the production process. This has been the theme of two popular Soviet novels, "Not by Bread Alone" and "Those Who Seek," and of much discussion in the Soviet press. The typical story is of an individual inventor, working outside the established research and development system, who devises a superior method of doing something. His efforts to get his method adopted ran afoul of the obstacles of jealousy on the part of those technicians whose approval and cooperation he needs, and what Khrushchev repeatedly castigates as the "conservatism" of enterprise managers. In the novels, at least, the Communist Party is likely to intervene in the end as the *deus ex machina*, saving the inventor from suicide and his idea from oblivion.

THE difficulties facing the independent inventor are not unknown in the West. What is missing from the Soviet story is the independent capitalist, the thrifty chiropractor who takes a flyer on Fulton's Folly, demonstrating its practical value and incidentally making a fortune for himself. The independent capitalist is a more reliable *deus ex machina* than the Communist Party, because there can be many capitalists but only one Communist Party.

Ordinarily in the Soviet Union a decision to invest in producing a new product or using a new process would have to be initiated by the management of one of the large enterprises in the industry concerned. A conversation we had at the Leningrad City Administration, which has a number of small enterprises under its jurisdiction, is of interest in this connection. We asked whether it was considered valuable to have a large number of small enterprises as points where new ideas could be tried. The answer was no; advanced technology is supposed to be developed in the large, leading enterprises; the small enterprise is only a passive recipient of technology originating elsewhere.

The Soviet government has been trying to devise a system of rewards that will overcome the reluctance of enterprise managers to take the risks and troubles of technological change. Each enterprise has a cost-of-production target, and the enterprise, its officers and workers receive premiums for reducing costs below the target. In addition, responsible persons receive ad hoc awards for specific acts of innovation or cost-saving. But the con-

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tinuing complaints in the Soviet press and the frequent changes in the incentive system suggest that it does not work well.

Since the people with whom we talked in the Soviet Union did not admit any weakness in the incentives for innovation we were unable to discuss with them reasons for the inadequacy. Nevertheless, certain hypotheses are suggested by the description of the incentive system pieced together in our interviews.

First, obtaining an ad hoc award for innovation seems to involve a great deal of red tape and numerous discretionary decisions by higher-ups. This may lead to uncertainties that reduce the force of the incentives.

Second, there is a general ceiling on the premium that an individual may earn for enterprise cost reduction, the ceiling being equal to 40 per cent of base pay. While we were unsuccessful in efforts to learn the specific schedules of the premium system, it appears that in many cases the enterprise had already reached its ceiling. If so, there would not only be no further incentive for cost reduction; there would in fact be an incentive to defer cost reduction in order to assure the earning of a premium in the next year.

Third, it did not appear that the incentive system distinguishes sharply between being first to introduce an innovation and being second or third. It may therefore be wise for an enterprise manager to wait for someone else to get the bugs out of a process before he tries it. Alexander Pope's suggestion may be relevant here: "Be not the first by whom the new is tried, nor yet the last to cast the old aside."

IN general, the Soviet incentive system as we heard it described struck me as rather bookish and sentimental, as if it had been devised by a progressive first-grade teacher, who didn't really like anyone to get much ahead of anyone else and who was uncertain whether to reward effort or performance. Another analogy that I find useful in thinking about the Soviet incentive system is the U. S. tax system. Both are complicated ways of rewarding a kind of loose equivalent of the results the society really wants to maximize.

Despite the drawbacks in the Soviet system, however, there seems to me little ground for complacency. Even if it is true, as I think, that the system by which the Soviet Union generates technological advance is not notably efficient, this would not by itself determine the actual pace of advance. An inefficient system run by competent, powerful, determined people may still produce results.

Industry's Problems and Prospects

By GEORGE TERBORGH

THE nine industrial plants we visited are on the regular tourist circuit, and may therefore be presumed to be above average. On the other hand, they are without exception of prewar vintage. While six of them were demolished during the war and were then restored, the restoration did not make them really new; much less did it bring them up to the best technology of today. Since we had no opportunity to inspect industrial installations of recent or current vintage, no claim can be made that we saw a representative sample or cross section of the productive capacity of the country. My observations are therefore limited strictly to the nine plants visited. They should not be construed as generalizations for Soviet industry as a whole.

Moreover, my training has been entirely in economics, and the casual opportunities that have come my way to observe one sector of American industry in no way qualify me as a production expert. These remarks are therefore the impressions of a layman, not the judgments of an expert.

The nine plants, together with a rounded figure for total employment to give an idea of the size of the operation, follows:

Major Product	*City*	*Total Employment*
Lathes	Moscow	6,000
Watches	Moscow	6,500
Candy	Leningrad	1,000
Turbogenerators	Leningrad	10,000
Automatic Lathes	Kiev	3,500
Tractors	Kharkov	32,000
Building Tile	Kharkov	1,600
Hosiery	Kharkov	4,000
Steel	Rustavi	12,000

These enterprises are run by an extremely able group of managers. We had the privilege of talking in most cases with the chief engineer, a figure in the Soviet industrial hierarchy immediately second to the director, and in a few cases with the director himself. These men are obviously highly trained in their profession, intimately familiar with every detail of their operations, and thoroughly practical in their approach. They would be a credit to the management group of any country. A similar comment applies to the workers. They appear to be extremely industrious, and apply themselves to their tasks with an energy and concentration seldom seen in the United States. This results in part, of course, from the widespread use of piecework and other incentive devices described elsewhere in this special issue of *SR*.

A second observation, one that applies to most of the plants visited, and especially to the machine-building and heavy industry plants, has to do with the crowded condition of the working areas. It appears to be the Soviet practice to jam more equipment into a given floor space than is usual in the United States. The aisles are narrower and are frequently cluttered and sometimes obstructed by work in process, giving limited opportunity for the use of electric lift trucks and other powered materials-handling equipment. It can be said also that the "housekeeping" tends to fall short of American standards. Most of the plants give the impression of being rather dirty as well as crowded, though there are exceptions. Moreover, the illumination frequently appears to be substandard, with resultant fatigue and safety hazards. Safety devices themselves appear to be less prevalent than in this country.

I should say also that most of the equipment appears to be rather old. Since these are either prewar plants or plants restored after the war, this is not particularly surprising. The equipment installed in the restoration was in part new, in part used, and in part transferred from Europe by way of reparations. I have the impression that, with the exception of two or three of the light-industry plants, subsequent installations of new equipment have been on a limited scale.

As is well known, the Soviet Union has an elaborate apparatus of research institutes, design bureaus, and project-planning bureaus attached to various academies, ministries, and government commissions. In addition, most industrial enterprises visited do the design and engineering on their own standard products, leaving more basic research, and the design of special products, to outside institutes and design bureaus.

The lathe plant does the design and development work on its standard lathe,

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but gets many of its special machinery designs from the outside. The watch factory does its own design work. The candy factory develops its own recipes. The turbogenerator plant does what it describes as "near-term" design work with its own staff, but has in the plant a branch of the Moscow Design Institute which works on "long-term" design. The automatic lathe plant does its own work on standard products but relies on outside design bureaus for special machinery. The tractor plant develops its own models in collaboration with the Institute for Research in Farm Equipment of the Ministry of Agriculture, which has its own testing stations, and gets new development assignments from the Commission on Automation and Machine Building. The tile plant designs its own tile patterns jointly with ceramic research institutes, relying for the basic research on the Institute of Ceramics Technology in Moscow. The hosiery mill relies on its own designers. The steel mill has a plant laboratory, but relies for research on the Institute of Metallurgy of the Georgian Academy of Science and on the Moscow Institute for Ferrous Metallurgy.

It should be added that the enterprises are not free to adopt new product designs, whether originating in their own organization or outside, without clearance and approval by the industrial control apparatus represented by the *sovnarkhoz* and the republic Gosplan. Proposals to produce new products must be approved, and a price determined, usually for incorporation in the next annual production plan.

It should also be added that management appears to be keenly interested in product development, and is under considerable pressure for such development from the control apparatus. We received several reports that new-product development is scheduled ahead in the one-year and seven-year plans. Moreover, the control authorities have recently introduced a system of incentive rewards for managers, technicians, and others involved in the development and introduction of new designs. The candy factory introduced eleven new recipes last year. The automatic lathe plant reports an average of two major product improvements a year. The hosiery mill is proud of the introduction of an average of five to ten new types of hosiery annually—and so on.

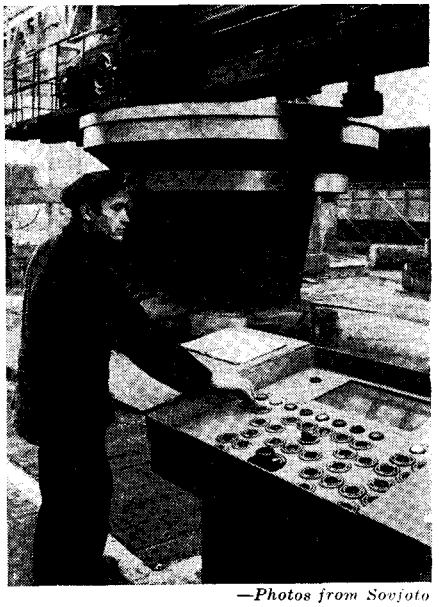
One feature of product design and development that impressed me is the absence of conspicuous improvements over Western models. Indeed, it is noteworthy that several plant managers take evident pride in the claim that their current designs are fully abreast of the best Western models. One gets the impression that the great goal at present is to catch up with design in the capitalist countries. The only exception noted is the turbogenerator plant, which boasts models of unprecedented size. The plant is now building turbogenerators of 200,000-kilowatt capacity, expects this year to produce a 300,000-kilowatt unit, and is designing units of 500,000 to 600,000 kilowatts, with preliminary work on units of 1,000,000 kilowatts. These are said to go beyond the present horizons of Western design. (American turbogenerator manufacturers consulted on this claim deny it.) In any event, this is the only instance we encountered in which it is even claimed that the products currently produced surpass Western models.

I have the impression that apart from the machine-building plants themselves, comparatively little productive equipment is designed and developed by the user. The machine-building plants, being in the business, do produce a considerable amount of equipment for their own use, but this does not appear to be general. Typically, the design function is divided between the machinery builders and the various research institutes and design bureaus.

IT is fair, I believe, to report the same impression with reference to the design of productive equipment that was mentioned with reference to product design in general. In this area also we encountered several instances of evident pride in the claim that the current Soviet designs are fully abreast of the best Western technology. Again we encountered in only one instance a claim that Soviet designs are significantly superior. This claim concerned the famous automated lines for making standard engine lathes in the Moscow lathe plant.

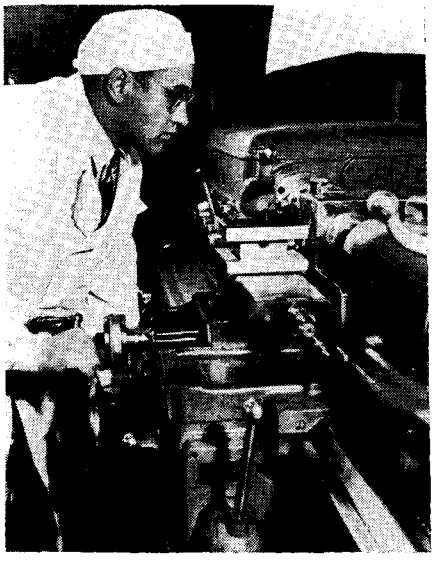
The automation of machine-tool production is undoubtedly a notable achievement of its kind, though it can be questioned whether its over-all advantages exceed its disadvantages. What the plant has done is to use conveyors and equip with special automatic equipment the machining of three major castings, the bed, the gear-box housing, and the tailpiece. It also uses an automatic line for gear-cutting and finishing, as well as a final assembly line with conveyors. By these means it has cut quite drastically the labor requirements of the standard lathe, of which it produces some 12,000 units a year. The claim is made that the direct labor requirement is only a third or less of that of Western countries, where the product is manufactured on a batch or job-lot basis. The lathe is sold for $3,800 in export markets, which is far below comparative Western prices.

This type of production has of course two disadvantages. First, it requires a

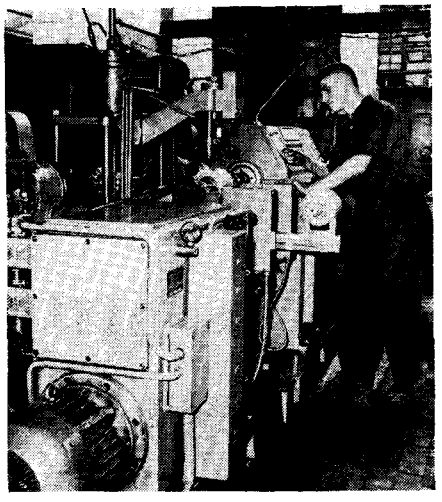


—*Photos from Sovfoto*

Vertical-lathe operator at Novosibirsk Turbogenerator Plant.



Engineer uses radioactive isotopes to check wearing qualities of tools.



Automatic lathe being tested in Ural electric motor plant.

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freezing of product design over long periods and thus impairs the flexibility of development. (The current model was designed in 1957, and may have an extended run in the future.) Second, it is a doubtful service to Soviet industry to feed into it so many units of a simple standard tool, the use of which in Western technology is limited largely to low-production operations. While I am not competent to judge the issue, I have reservations on the over-all advantage. It may well be that the loss to Soviet industrial efficiency from such a mass installation of low-grade equipment will more than offset any economies achieved in its production.

One thing is certain, however. The mass production of this kind of equipment offers tremendous potentials for export to underdeveloped countries. Such equipment is more suitable for their relatively primitive technologies than the more elaborate and sophisticated products of the West, and the low price made possible by volume production gives a decisive advantage. In this aspect of the operation the Soviets are clearly on the right track.

IN the Soviet system the individual state enterprise does not have control of its own capital budget. It is not privileged to "plow back" its own earnings and reserve accruals into new capital facilities. The budget is determined by the planning apparatus, and the enterprise must live within its limits.

This does not mean that the enterprise has nothing to say about the matter. It does submit investment proposals annually, usually to the *sovnarkhoz* that supervises it, but the end result is controlled by the basic allocation of investment expenditures in the national plan. This plan allocates capital funds by republics and by industries, and the allocation to the individual plants must stay within the indicated limits.

This means, of course, that national priorities control the capital budget of each enterprise. I have the impression that major emphasis nationally has been concentrated, until recently at least, on the development of new industry and on the expansion of capacity, and that the replacement and modernization of existing facilities have been relatively neglected. While a shift of emphasis seems to be under way now, the long neglect of modernization is reflected in the prevalence of aged equipment.

One of the consequences of this neglect of modernization investment has been a heavy concentration on the rebuilding, rather than retirement and replacement, of existing equipment. I had the impression that such rebuilding is far more prevalent than in the United States. Some plants referred expressly to their planned rebuilding schedule (for example, the lathe plant programs the rebuilding and modernization of 6 per cent of its equipment annually), with only vague reference to their planned replacement program.

It appears that the overwhelming bulk of this rebuilding occurs in the maintenance shops of the using plant. It is obvious why this should be done by machine-building establishments, but it appears to be common even in consumer goods plants. This creates a sizable auxiliary activity in the maintenance shops.

The recent shift in emphasis from expansion to modernization investment in the Soviet Union has greatly intensified the interest in the problem of investment justification, or, as it is described there, the measurement of "capital effectiveness." I have the impression, however, that up to the present at least, the investigation has been seriously handicapped by certain doctrinal or ideological scruples against an explicit use of interest, or time discount, in investment analysis. This debars the more sophisticated techniques recently developed in the United States, such as the discounted-cash-flow method and others. Soviet theorists have felt impelled to borrow instead from the industrial folklore of the West, and to build on an ancient rule-of-thumb test of investment merit, the payoff period.

Their modification of the version of this device common in the West is to deduct from the estimated annual operating advantage or "saving" of the project an allowance for "capital amortization," and to divide the balance of the saving into the required investment for the payoff period, variously described in their literature as "the capital recoupment," or "the capital redemption" period.

The permissible "capital recoupment period" is not of uniform duration. Elaborate schedules have been prepared describing maximum "recoupment periods" for various kinds of assets, with a very wide range of such maximums from low to high—from two years up to fifteen or sixteen years. This procedure is not only completely unscientific but yields capricious results as tested by any rational system of investment analysis. In time the ideological inhibitions against a more scientific approach will no doubt be overcome.

ANOTHER by-product of the shift of emphasis toward plant modernization is the development of a formal depreciation policy.

One advance in this area has been a belated recognition of obsolescence as a cause of capital consumption, and its inclusion as a cost of production. Until quite recently it was regarded as a phenomenon of capitalist economies of no concern to a socialist system. Now it is recognized, however, along with wear and tear and other forms of physical deterioration, as a legitimate subject for "capital amortization allowances," and such allowances have been increased accordingly.

The question constantly recurs whether depreciation charges in the Soviet Union are higher or lower than they are for the corresponding industries in the United States. It is impossible to answer this question definitely on the basis of our limited observation. In the first place, Soviet asset valuations have recently been translated from historical cost to its current equivalent, and depreciation rates are now computed on the adjusted valuations, in contrast to the practice in this country. In the second place, depreciation allowances in the Soviet Union are in-

THE SOVIET BLOC IN THE WORLD ECONOMY (1959)

Indicator	Unit	World	Soviet Bloc**	USSR	Industrial West***	USA
Population	Millions	2,905	1,010	210	544	177
Electric Power	Billion Kilowatts	2,058	418	264	1,385	794
Energy Consumption Total	MillionMT*	3,983	1,122	621	2,399	1,402
Per Capita	Metric tons*		1.15	3.0	4.5	8.1
Steel	"	291	92.5	60	184	85
Petroleum	"	977	149	130	387	348
Trucks	Thousands	2,929	450	371	2,186	1,136
Passenger Cars	"	10,526	244	125	10,106	5,591

*in terms of hard coal equivalent
**Eastern Europe, USSR, Red China, and satellites of Red China
***Western Europe, British Isles, Canada, and USA
Source: Indicators of Economic Strength, Department of State

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clusive of what are known as "capital repairs." This term appears to cover heavy maintenance, including rebuilding and renewal expenditures. Since these "capital repairs" are charged against the current depreciation allowance, and since the practice in the United States, while by no means uniform, is generally different, this complicates any comparison of depreciation rates.

We were able to obtain the over-all depreciation rates (for plant and equipment combined) for five of the industrial enterprises visited. They range from 5 to 7 per cent, with an average of 5.7 per cent. Inquiries in several plants indicate that from a third to half of the allowance is absorbed by "capital repairs," leaving an average rate for depreciation proper somewhere between 3 and 4 per cent. This appears to be below the average for the United States, even if depreciation is computed on the current equivalent of the historical cost of capital assets.

I HAVE mentioned that Soviet industrial plants appear to manufacture in their own maintenance shops a considerable portion of the repair parts required for their equipment. The reason for this lies in part in the remote relations between equipment producers and their customers. With the exception of the tractor plant, which manufactures equipment chiefly for agricultural use, the machine-building plants visited maintain no regional warehouses for supplying repair parts to their customers. All shipments of such parts are made from the home plant. This means that the customers must protect their requirements by having a large bank of parts on hand, and that in emergencies they must manufacture their own rather than wait for a remote shipment. This probably results in larger aggregate inventories of repair parts for the economy as a whole, and more delays and interruptions in production, than are required by our system, in which the supplier usually maintains a regional bank of parts for quick service.

It is not only with respect to repair parts that the relations between the machinery supplier and his customers are remote. Again excepting the tractor plant, none of the machine-building establishments maintains regional sales and service offices. This means that the close and cooperative relations between the supplier and customer common in the United States are not enjoyed in the Soviet Union. Not only is machinery bought rather than sold; there also appears to be less in the way of collaborative solution of customer production problems, so fruitful a source of technological progress in our country.

The USSR's Organization Men

—*Sovfoto*

Moscow University Nuclear Physics Institute—Feader S. Vasiljer (center) discusses next cyclotron experiment with a group of workers.

By FLOYD A. BOND

WHO ARE the top managers in the Soviet Union? How are they selected, trained, and motivated to become ideal organization men in the most bureaucratic of all societies? What are their special problems and how do they go about solving them?

On the bottom rung of the Soviet management ladder are the plant managers, who are roughly comparable to plant superintendents in our system. Almost all of them are men, even though women make up 45 per cent of the labor force and receive about a quarter of the engineering degrees. They are relatively young men; almost all hold college degrees; and most degrees are in engineering from technical institutes. Their primary responsibility is production.

On the ladder above the plant managers are the top administrators in the 100-plus regional economic councils (*sovnarkhozy*). Each council is, in a sense, the "home office" for the factories doing about 85 per cent of the industrial production within its region. Some rough idea of the responsibility the chairmen of these councils have can be gained by imagining 85 per cent of all U.S. industrial production concentrated in 110 corporations.

On the ladder above these administrators are the chief planners in the Gosplans and the members of the Councils of Ministers.

At the very top of the ladder are the members of the all-powerful Central Committee of the Communist Party. The Party, as is well known, commands the complete loyalty of all of its members. These include almost everyone on the ladder with the possible exception of a few managers on the bottom rung—a fact that should never be forgotten in discussing Soviet management.

To gain a foothold on the management ladder, one should be a college graduate, a member of the Communist Party, and (as a general rule, but not necessarily) a male.

THE route to the top is much less varied than in the United States. The better grades one has received in college, the more likely he is to have at least some influence on the choice of locality, perhaps even the factory, in which he begins his career. The more he has distinguished himself in the Young Pioneers and the Young Communist League, the sooner he is likely to become a member of the Communist Party. And the better he knows and is liked by the powers that be, the quicker he will rise.

The usual route to plant manager is

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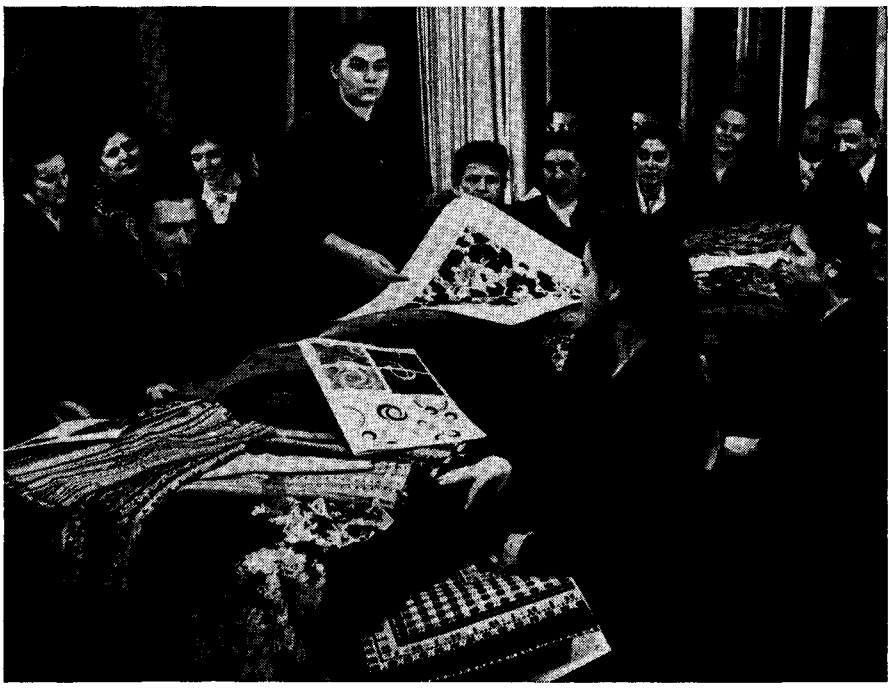

—*Sovfoto*

Director Alexandra Bogaeva (standing) meets with the Art Council to discuss designs for fabrics manufactured by the plant she supervises.

through the "line" rather than the "staff."

Plant managers are appointed by the regional economic councils, which in turn recruit some plant managers for their own staffs as well as hire recent graduates of the technical institutes.

While in the Soviet Union, we asked many officials how they attained their present position and found that most of them had worked their way up through the ranks.

The director of the big Transcaucasian Steel Mill at Rustavi began his career as a construction worker immediately upon graduation from a metallurgical trade school. While at this work, he attended the Polytechnic Institute at Tbilisi and upon graduation was employed by a steel mill, where he advanced to foreman and then engineer. He then shifted to his present factory, where he moved from chief of the open-hearth department to deputy chief engineer and then to plant manager.

Of the 1,600 employees at the Kharkov Tile Factory, 110 are engineers and technicians, of whom ten are economists. None of the employees are university graduates but over half of the 110 are graduates of technical institutes. The manager said his thirty years of experience in the tile business began when he took a job at the Institute of Refractory Materials. He then worked as chief engineer in the experimental shop of the Institute. Upon finishing at the Kharkov Polytechnical Institute, he came to work at this plant as chief of production, then advanced to chief engineer, and two years ago became plant manager.

The manager of the Tsinandali State Farm, about 100 miles from Tbilisi, began his career as a forest engineer, then became director of a small vineyard, and moved to his present job five years ago.

The director of the Administration of Local Industry of the Leningrad City Council began as a designer, became chief of a design bureau and then chief engineer of a plant. He then moved to the municipal administration, where he became chief engineer, deputy director, and finally director.

At the Uzbekian Gosplan, the top officials were engineers or engineer-economists by training, had usually started in a plant, had often risen through intermediate organizations such as trusts, and had then moved to Gosplan. It was emphasized that they had close ties with the plant for which they planned.

THE emphasis on technical training and vocational experience is revealing. At a time when our business schools are being urged to turn to the liberal arts, it is interesting to note that the Soviet Union is moving even more in the direction of highly specialized, extremely technical, and highly vocational training.

More graduates of the elementary schools are being urged to attend trade schools rather than high schools. More graduates of high schools are being required to work two years before attending college. More college seniors are being asked to combine factory work with their studies.

Although the current labor shortage and the desire to prevent the emergence of an unhealthy attitude on the part of Soviet youth toward the occupation of "worker" in a "workers' society" may explain some of this emphasis, it is nevertheless true that Soviet education places primary emphasis on the technical, vocational side. Engineering is the main road to success.

As one moves up the management ladder, a knowledge of economic planning, budgeting, statistics, and research techniques becomes increasingly important. Of the top 200 members of Gospian we were told that half are engineers and half are economists.

All aspirants to top management posts are of course required to take prescribed courses in Communist indoctrination. Three courses, stretching over five years and constituting about 8 to 10 per cent of the normal college program, are required of every Soviet student regardless of his field of specialization. These courses are: "Dialectical and Historical Materialism" (140 instructional hours), "Political Economy" (300 hours), and "History of the Communist Party" (224 hours).

The required reading list for Political Economy includes, in addition to sixty-four "official documents," ninety-three selections from Lenin, eleven from Engels, twenty-four from Marx, thirteen from Stalin, fourteen from Khrushchev, one from Mao, and *none* by any other author.

In the course "History of the Communist Party," the only authors from outside the Iron Curtain are: William Z. Foster of the United States, John Gollan of Britain, Johann Koplinig of Austria, Villa Pessi of Finland, Maurice Thorez of France, and Palmiro Togliatti of Italy.

The following paragraph from the course in political economy gives the flavor of the instruction:

> Whereas, in the capitalist countries, production is subordinated to the predatory law of profit maximization, dooming the workers to ruin, poverty, unemployment, hunger, and bloody wars, production in a socialist society is subordinated to the interests of man and the satisfaction of his growing needs.

A good grasp of the "content" of these courses is required, not only to pass stiff examinations on them set by the Ministry of Higher Education, but also to qualify for important positions of responsibility in the system. Complete loyalty to the doctrine is an absolute prerequisite to any top Soviet post.

Despite this ideology however, we

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should not make the mistake of overlooking the technical achievements of the Soviet Union and the technical competence of the plant managers, whose ability and confidence were quite evident and very impressive.

To provide effective incentives to management, a complicated system of monthly bonuses (called "premia") is used in addition to highly unequal base salaries.

Whereas the average monthly factory wage is probably in the neighborhood of 800 rubles, plant managers normally receive from 3,000 to 5,000 rubles.

The manager of the Kirov "Electrosila" Works in Leningrad, which has about 10,000 employees, receives a base salary of 5,000 rubles a month. Judging from the data we received from the Leningrad regional economic council, which supervises more than 600 plants in the region, this would be at the top of their range.

To this would be added the bonuses for plan fulfillment, cost reduction, and the like, which could increase income by as much as 50 to 100 per cent.

In addition, a plant manager may live in a large apartment, have the use of a factory-owned automobile and the convenience of an expense account, possibly get part or all of his vacation free, and enjoy the prestige and other privileges that go with his position.

If, on the other hand, he fails to achieve the production goal set for him—and from one-fifth to one-thrid of the industrial plant managers do fail—he may be demoted, fired, or perhaps even prosecuted for "crimes" against the state, for which he may be imprisoned or suffer a worse fate.

Thus private economic gain is the main incentive to managerial efficiency in the Soviet Union.

But does this mean that the Soviet system has solved the problem of effective managerial incentives in the social interest in a society that does not permit private ownership of the means of production and that looks upon profits as arising solely from the exploitation of labor?

A negative answer seems inescapable. Bonuses based on plan fulfillment and similar "success indicators," even those adopted in the 1960 Soviet decree, are not adequate substitutes for the all-inclusive profit test. Whether the production target is set in terms of weight, volume, acres, value, or number of units, there is a strong incentive to fulfill the production quota in ways that are not socially desirable. It is easy to say that the product specifications will be controlled, but our own war experience indicates that this is easier said than done. And in any case such control takes resources away from other productive pursuits.

Perhaps the greatest social cost of this incentive system is the strong inducement to sacrifice quality in order to achieve greater quantity. This is a particularly serious problem in the Soviet system. In fact, since no bonus at all is paid top officials if output falls short of the mark even by as little as 5 per cent, a powerful stimulus often exists to reduce quality in order to increase quantity. This may be, and is, done in several ways. It is undoubtedly one of the reasons for the inferior quality of most Soviet goods.

Moreover, this incentive system may retard the rate of economic growth by holding down the rate of technological progress. Innovations are to be avoided unless they can be quickly adopted without disrupting current production. Long-run cost considerations are subordinate to short-run output considerations.

The incentive system also encourages falisfication of records, the hoarding of labor and supplies, and numerous "unusual activities" such as "concealing" output one month to carry it over to the next, "borrowing" output that will be produced next month to meet this month's quota, working the employees on Sunday and giving them a day off during the month following, bribing the right people. The high premium placed on achieving the production goal is a strong inducement to breaking rules, cutting corners, even engaging in illegal activities, in spite of the danger of being caught and the severity of the penalities that may follow.

YET, though they run risks and work long and hard, these men are not really the masters of their own souls. Herein, in my judgment, lies the greatest weakness of the Soviet system. People lack the basic security needed to liberate the spirit.

To be really free, and to exercise that freedom even in criticism of leading officials, one must have a status that cannot easily be destroyed by those officials. In our system, that security has rested upon at least two conditions: the ownership of property, and the existence of numerous employers—outside the control of the officials.

Without these two cornerstones of our civilization, I seriously doubt that economic and political freedom, as we know it, would and could exist. These freedoms have certainly given a quality to American life and culture which is strikingly absent in the Soviet Union. Americans value the spirit of life above the quantity of production—though the evidence does not yet indicate that a society needs to choose between them.

The Soviet Economy

The following books, selected by the editors of SR and the CED, are recommended to readers seeking further information on the subjects discussed in this special issue.

KHRUSHCHEV'S RUSSIA. *By Edward Crankshaw. Peter Smith, Gloucester, Mass., 1960; $2.75; Penguin Books, 1960, 85 cents (paper).*

THE GREAT CONTEST: RUSSIA AND THE WEST. *By Isaac Deutscher. Oxford, 1960; $2.75.*

MARX AND THE MARXISTS: THE AMBIGUOUS LEGACY. *By Sidney Hook. D. Van Nostrand Company, 1955; $1.25 (paper).*

MAIN STREET, U.S.S.R. *By Irving R. Levine. Signet, 1960, 50 cents (paper); Doubleday, 1957, $4.50 (cloth).*

THE KREMLIN AND WORLD POLITICS: STUDIES IN SOVIET POLICY AND ACTION. *By Philip E. Mosely. Vintage, 1960; $1.65 (paper).*

COMPARISONS OF THE UNITED STATES AND SOVIET ECONOMIES. *86th Congress, First Session, Joint Economic Committee; papers submitted by panelists appearing before the Subcommittee on Economic Statistics, Parts I, II, and III; U. S. Government Printing Office, 1959.*

FORTY YEARS OF SOVIET POWER: IN FACTS AND FIGURES. *Foreign Language Publishing House, Moscow, 1958. Available from Four Continents Bookshop, New York; $1.25 (hardcover).*

SOVIET SEVEN YEAR PLAN, 1959-1965 *Clarke Irwin & Co., Ltd., Toronto, 1959; $10.*

HOW THE SOVIET SYSTEM WORKS. *By R. A. Bauer and others. Vintage, 1960; $1.25 (paper).*

ECONOMIC ATLAS OF THE SOVIET UNION. *By George Kish. University of Michigan Press, 1960; $10.*

COMMUNIST ECONOMIC STRATEGY: SOVIET GROWTH AND CAPABILITIES. *By A. Nove. National Planning Association, Washington, D. C., 1959; $2.25 (paper).*

USA AND USSR: THE ECONOMIC RACE. *By V. Perlo. International Publishers, 1960; $2.50.*

SOVIET ECONOMIC WARFARE. *By R. L. Allen. Public Affairs Press, 1960; $5.*

FOR VICTORY IN PEACEFUL COMPETITION WITH CAPITALISM. *By Nikita Khrushchev. Dutton, 1960; $3.95.*

CURRENT SOVIET POLICIES III: THE DOCUMENTARY RECORD OF THE EXTRAORDINARY 21ST COMMUNIST PARTY CONGRESS. *Leo Gruliow, Editor. Columbia University Press, 1960; $6.*

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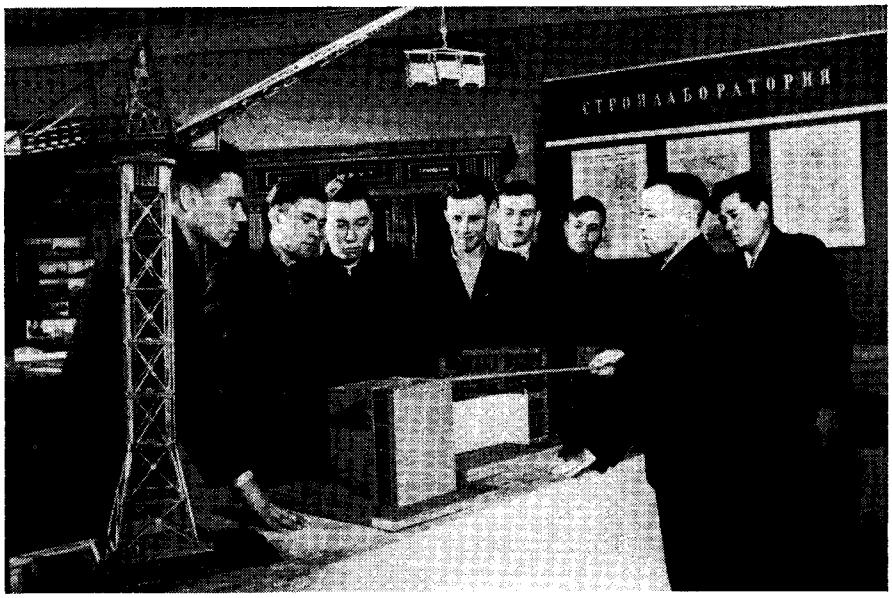
THE LABOR FORCE: WHO DOES WHAT

By LEON HERMAN

THE commitment to growth, as well as the basic method used in its pursuit, remain permanent in the Soviet Union, but the techniques used in the promotion of growth are frequently adjusted to meet changing conditions. At the present stage of the expansion drive, the Soviet Union is experiencing heavy pressures against the available pool of manpower. Soviet industry in particular requires a labor force that is not only bigger but also well motivated. On both counts, in fact, there is at present a certain urgency in the air among Soviet economic authorities.

On more than one occasion, some of this urgency conveyed itself to us in the course of our conversations with responsible economic officials in various parts of the country. The older methods employed in the management of the all-important labor resource, we were often told, can no longer be used to good effect under present conditions. This is more than a matter of good intention. The decision to do a better job of husbanding the labor resources of the country appears to underlie the whole range of economic policies now unfolding in the Soviet Union. The need for a better performance in industry, by means of higher productivity of the labor force, has recently become more and more associated, in practice, with the need for better individual rewards and incentives. The concept of better rewards, in turn, has been given some practical expression in the form of a quantitative rise in the supply of goods and services to the mass of the urban population.

The urgent need to provide better rewards to labor in order to elicit a higher level of worker productivity presents the Soviet economic planners with a serious challenge. A radical new departure in this respect could upset the present proportions in the sphere of labor allocation. Any improvement in the level of consumer satisfaction in the country, if it is to be sufficient to affect the mass of industrial workers, can be achieved only at the cost of a large slice of the manpower melon to trade and services. Unfortunately for the planners, the present labor supply is not secure enough for that purpose. As a matter of fact, the pressure for higher labor productivity has arisen as a result of the existing stringency in manpower. It would therefore require extraordinary skill on the part of the planners to allocate precisely the amount of labor to the consumer goods and service industries needed to raise the quality of everyday services enough to increase incentives and productivity without endangering the supply of production workers for basic industry.



Leader of a team of bricklayers instructs workers in latest techniques.

In the past, the deployment of the labor force for rapid economic growth was a relatively simple affair. The Soviet government had all the power it needed to allocate labor, and it used this important lever of economic control to alter the country's pattern of production. Using its power as the monopoly employer of labor, it quickly carried out a massive transfer of manpower from agriculture to industry. At that stage, such a transfusion was considered the prime remedy for all of Russia's traditional economic ills, as diagnosed by Stalin. Numbers were the source of strength. Stalin had fixed his sights, as early as 1925, on a target of "from fifteen to twenty million industrial proletarians." With a labor force of this size, he promised the party faithful, "we shall be victorious on an international scale."

THE record of growth in labor numbers has reflected, all along, the relentless drive for industrial parity with the nations of the West. Thus, when the campaign to move into the front rank of industrial powers began in 1928, Soviet industry employed only 3,100,000 workers, less than 2 per cent of the population. After years of forcing the flow of labor into industry, the 15,000,000 figure was reached in 1956, three years after Stalin's death. Three years later, in 1959, Soviet industry employed 16,000,000 industrial workers, or 8 per cent of the population, a proportion typical of the most developed economies in the West. Thus, the long and stormy journey to pull abreast of the more advanced industrial nations in industrial manpower has come to an end.

The aim of Stalin's original drive, however, was not only to build up the over-all mass of industry's manpower but also to establish a correct set of "proportions" in its allocation. As elsewhere in the economy, the proportions were set up in favor of heavy industry, the foundation of economic power for the regime. In this respect, too, the desired results were achieved in short order. By the beginning of World War II, after twelve years of total planning, the picture in industrial employment had changed drastically. Two examples will suffice to illustrate the direction of the change. For one, the share of the machine-building industries was raised

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from 14 per cent of total industrial employment in 1928 to 29 per cent by 1940; and to 31 per cent by 1959. For another, the food industry, which had employed 20 per cent of all labor in industry at the beginning of the drive, dropped to 12.5 per cent in 1940; by 1959, it accounted for only 10 per cent of the country's industrial labor force.

At present, however, the problem facing Soviet economic planners is somewhat different. For all practical purposes, there are no more great reserves of labor in agriculture to be tapped. The broad proportions in the makeup of the labor force have been stabilized. Industry now absorbs 35 per cent of all wage-earners (excluding collective farmers). Moreover, it seems to have become firmly settled at this proportion, to the extent that other sectors of the economy, mainly the services, have succeeded in enforcing their modest claims for labor. In short, the manpower costs of urbanization had to be met. Even in their minimum variant, they were substantial. According to the official record, the labor force employed in the production of goods has been steadily losing ground in its rate expansion, chiefly as a result of the outflow of labor from agriculture. Over the past thirty years, for example, total employment in "production" has increased by only 34 per cent, while the size of the labor force absorbed in "services" has increased sixfold. As a result, the service sector now accounts for 12 per cent of all manpower in the economy, as against 3 per cent at the beginning of the planning period.

FACED by these natural limits imposed on the size of the industrial labor force, Soviet authorities seem to have accepted the implication that future growth will depend to a greater degree on better methods for the utilization of the labor force. This shift in emphasis in Soviet labor policy has brought in its train a whole series of reforms designed to obtain a higher productivity from the worker. Since a better performance by the individual worker in industry requires, in turn, higher individual morale, the regime has set in motion in recent years a wide program for that purpose, consisting of a shorter work week, reduced differentials in wages, higher pensions, better housing, and a more abundantly supplied distribution network serving the consumer economy.

The problems arising from this group of ameliorative measures now dominate the scene in labor relations in the USSR. Small benefits already provided are visibly raising expectations for more gains. Inevitably, the way in which Soviet authorities carry out these measures for the relaxation of austerity may be expected to condition the social climate in the USSR for some time to come.

Shift foreman in a leather-cutting shop for a footwear factory directs a Stakhanovite school for improving methods.

For the immediate future, however, the movement toward a higher level of welfare is likely to be slowed down by counterpressures generated by the uninterrupted drive for industrial growth. One of these is the urgent need for an adequate industrial labor force to carry industry forward during the critical years ahead. What makes these years critical is the fact that the natural flow of new labor into the economy, based on the coming of age of youngsters ready for employment, has been sharply reduced in the Soviet Union as a result of the low birth rate during the period 1941-47.

In the light of its standing commitment to growth, the Soviet government cannot countenance any interruption in the inflow of new manpower. Over one-third of all new labor, it must be remembered, is destined for industry. Accordingly, steps to countervail the expected shortfall began to be taken on the eve of the current seven-year plan period. In December, 1958, a drastic proposal by Khrushchev was rushed through as a law of the Supreme Soviet providing for the reorganization of the school system. Under this reform, briefly summarized, the period of elementary schooling was extended by one year to a total of eight years, thus bringing its graduates up to the employable age of fifteen. Beyond that, the law also ordered a change in the curriculum of the secondary school, under which students who stay in school for the grades 9 through 11 will be given a mixed course of vocational and academic training, working and studying part time. New enrollment practices were also introduced to direct a larger proportion of youth to daytime employment and after-work study.

THE main impact of the reform, as far as the economy is concerned, was to increase the flow of labor into industry and other state employment. By holding in check the proportion of full-time students, the reform has been estimated by school authorities to yield an additional 5,000,000 people for the state-hired labor force. This is expected to raise the total number of new labor entrants during 1959-65 to 8,400,000, as compared with the planned total of 11,900,000 recruits.

By means of this major reform alone, therefore, the Soviet Government has reduced the problem to manageable proportions. The remaining 3,500,000 new wage-earners needed during the seven-year plan will have to be supplied from three other sources. They are expected to come chiefly by way of transfers from the collective farms, by reducing the armed forces, and by drawing into the labor force more women and retired workers now out of production.

To date, there are some successes to report. During the five-year period 1955-59, the slowdown in school enrollment, coupled with reductions in the armed forces, helped to expand the civilian labor force more rapidly. The reported increase in these years was 10,000,000, while the natural increment of the population of working age measured only 7,400,000.

Recruiting the necessary number of

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industrial workers, however, is only half the problem. Another source of pressure now at work in the Soviet economy arises from the marked shift in the geographic demand for labor. Soviet authorities are now saying openly that they are coping with a serious imbalance in the supply of labor among the various economic regions of the country. Broadly stated, the old settled industrial areas in the west are now beginning to show a surplus, while the eastern regions are chronically undersupplied with industrial labor. Some more imaginative, or more drastic, measures will have to be taken by the state to carry out the transfer of excess numbers from the west to the east. The latter is now officially characterized as "an area with a tense labor balance during the current seven-year plan."

THE problem itself is not new; it has only become intensified as a result of the stepped-up pace of construction and the volume of industrial operations in a number of major centers in Siberia. Nor is there anything new in the mixture of remedies now being employed. Labor volunteers for the east are being wooed by a higher scale of wages in force for the region, and by contracts for a specific number of years, during which the volunteer's right to an apartment in his home city is preserved. Still, the rate of labor turnover is unusually high, and the odds for a more stable labor force there have not improved during recent years. The towns and construction sites, most of them new and raw, lack the normal amenities which the Soviet citizen in Europe has come to expect around his place of employment. For some reason, the pioneer spirit of the individual does not seem to flow freely in the Soviet environment, where the state can be depended upon to provide an organizational mold and attractive bonuses for all activities of an approved character. The official press is fairly outspoken on this point, often citing figures to show that a high proportion of the men who volunteer for the "front line of socialist production" take their travel allowance from the government and return home as soon as their contract term expires. A good many return at once, with complaints of inconsiderate treatment by their employers in Siberia.

In the opinion of the leadership, this distaste for the raw provinces of the east is largely the result of a poor educational job. Open letters from the temporary workers, featured in the central press, have usually based their appeals for more volunteers on a lyrical description of the natural attractions of that region. The fact remains, however, that this will not persuade enough people. The social overhead capital in these regions will have to be expanded before any large increase in the stable population can be expected. On this point, we have the authority of Khrushchev, who in his speech in Vladivostok on October 6, 1959, stated:

> We have to attract new people not by higher wages relative to other cities but by good living conditions. Give a housewife a comfortable apartment, and she will live here, at the same wage, as well as in other cities, and will not leave. See to it that there are adequate nurseries, schools, that the cities have movie houses and other cultural establishments; provide the people better with the needed supply of foodstuffs. Then, all people will begin to feel not like temporary but like permanent residents of this splendid region.

Clearly, it will take a good deal of labor to bring about a conspicuous improvement in services in these vast, poorly connected regions. The city of Moscow now has 3.7 times more manpower employed in retail trade, per inhabitant, than the rest of the country, and other industrial centers in the west are as well supplied. But the ratio becomes less favorable as one moves farther to the east.

For the Soviet leadership, all the lessons of their recent experience in the deployment of the labor force point to a need to provide a higher level of welfare for industrial workers. In that connection, the present leadership has revived and given wide currency to one of the admonitions by Lenin to the effect that "it is impossible to lead millions and tens of millions of people toward Communism without the element of material self-interest." Some material improvement has to loom up on the horizon during the journey toward the Communist land of promise. This means that the state will have to devise a better scheme of material rewards before it can expect improved performances by the individual worker. There is an abundance of hard facts to remind the authorities of the pressing need for such improvement. In industry, for example, the Soviet Union now has a labor force that is 18 per cent larger than in the United States. Soviet industry, moreover, employs about twice as many engineers. Yet the aggregate product of the respective industrial plants is most unequal, the ratio being at least two to one in favor of the United States. It would be difficult to find a single Soviet industry, even among the highly mechanized branches, that does not suffer from a chronic lag in output per employed persons. For a "front-line" industry like machine tools, a recent Soviet source placed U.S. labor productivity at 1.9 times that of the USSR. In the machine-building industry in general, U.S. labor productivity has been calculated by the official journal of Gosplan at 2.8 to 3 times higher than in the Soviet Union.

One way in which the Soviet state, in its capacity as the sole employer of labor, can stimulate a better effort on the part of its working force is by offering more economic inducements. This close interrelationship is clearly recognized by Soviet economic authorities in their public and private statements. The difficulty, however, is that their good intentions in this respect bring the planners into conflict with the established "proportions." Added welfare also has its cost in terms of manpower. Higher output per worker in industry, across the board, may be reasonably expected as a result of improved services. But such improvement in turn requires added manpower.

IN retail trade, the strained situation with respect to service is clearly visible. The foreign visitor can observe directly the pressures of unsatisfied demand for better service, to which the regime will have to give some ground in the near future. The fact that goods destined for mass distribution are now being turned out in larger volume does not bring the problem closer to solution. If anything, it only helps to dramatize the critical inadequacy and wastefulness of the retail trade network. Stores are generally small, archaic, poorly equipped, and arbitrarily located. In the cities, according to official data, there has been no improvement in the number of stores relative to population since 1940; both have just about doubled. Nor has there been any improvement in quality of service. Large neighborhood food stores in Moscow, for example, still operate without refrigeration. This very serious lack creates a need for extremely frequent deliveries

This evident lag in distribution has led a prominent Soviet manpower expert to predict: "The rise in demand for better quality of services to the population will lead to the need not only for an absolute but also for a relative increase in the quantity of labor and the number of employed."

Expectations, in short, are rising in the Soviet Union. To achieve an improvement in this sector, including more stores, roomier premises, a better flow of supplies, more modern techni-

(*Continued on page* 60)

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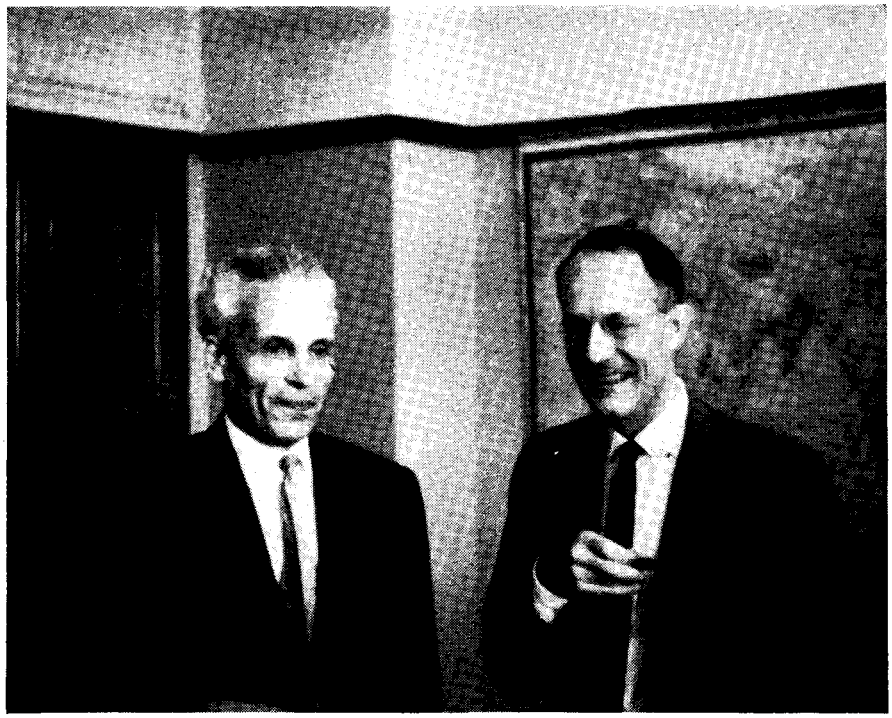
HUMAN CAPITAL: A GROWING ASSET

By T. W. SCHULTZ

THERE IS a growing awareness among economists that useful skills and knowledge that people acquire are a form of capital. It is convenient to think of it as *human capital*. Investments in man that contribute to the formation of this kind of capital have become very large in some countries, exceeding the rate at which conventional capital has been formed. The rise in the stock of human capital may go a long way toward explaining the widely observed large increase in national output compared to the small increase of the continued inputs of land, man-hours, and other capital.

A much-neglected aspect of Soviet economic growth is the amount and rate at which the quality of human effort entering into economic activities has been improved. In the Soviet, members of the labor force in industrial plants—skilled and unskilled, technicians, engineers, and directors—work hard. Many of them also put in long hours studying to improve their capabilities. It is the intensive pace at which they work that is impressive, not the length of the day or of the work week. When it comes to training and study programs, it is the proliferation of such programs and the stress that is put on them that stand out. Moreover, this part of the labor force appears to be motivated both to speed up its work and to study to improve its position.

It is, of course, extremely misleading to think of labor as homogeneous, and this is especially so of labor in the Soviet. I shall concentrate here on industrial labor in plants making producer and consumer goods, for it is the skill of this part of the labor force that represents one of the Soviet's major achievements. These workers are the cream of the crop; moreover, they are moving ahead rapidly. Training programs, hours spent in studying, and better and more education are no doubt a part of the explanation, and the rapidly growing demand for their industrial skills is also an important factor. Then, too, the Soviet system is strongly bent in their favor. Even so, it is hard to believe that the differences in labor productivity among workers in different "sectors" could have become as large as they are. In contrast to the relatively high labor productivity in the part of industry under discussion, the productivity of labor in agriculture is unbelievably low, as is the productivity of the women who can be seen sweeping streets and shoveling gravel and asphalt to patch or build roads. I suspect that the "normal" lag of adjusting to rapid industrialization has played a minor role in creating these differences. The primary reason for this "economic isolation" of one labor group from another has been a consequence of Soviet plans.



The author, right, with Mr. Podugolnikov of Gosplan.

In the pace of work and the amount of self-improvement in this industrial sector, we may have a key to a major puzzle about the Soviet economy. This puzzle, stated simply, is as follows: How has the Soviet managed to win so large an increase in production despite the poor performance in agriculture (which still accounts for nearly half of the labor force), the substantial mistakes that characterize the allocation of physical capital, and the long neglect of consumer goods?

The Soviet has organized its agriculture so that there are millions of plot-dwellers, each restricted to a small parcel of land with only primitive equipment and hand labor to farm these plots. The mistakes in the allocation of physical capital in industry are more difficult to detect than are such developments in agriculture. Notwithstanding the strong pragmatic bent of those who plan and administer the formation of this new capital, both the nature of the organization and the doctrine that capital does not require an "interest rate" to match its productivity to guide allocations take their toll.

Energy from hydroelectric installations has been pushed too far and too long compared to electricity from coal; and both of these were favored too long before turning to oil and natural gas. Heavy investments in the electrification of a long railroad, instead of the use of diesel locomotives, is also a case in point. Too many trucks are carrying a few sacks or poles or are being driven about empty; and, not infrequently, there are three expensive cranes in use in building an apartment house where one crane would be a more efficient use of such capital. Moscow's ornate subway and also the elaborate hotel in which we stayed while in Moscow are monuments of wasted capital.

The puzzle arises from the fact that

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in spite of these not unimportant adverse factors, the rate of growth of the Soviet economy has not been small. It is of course true that if total investments are large enough they can swamp the effects of many allocative mistakes. Large investments, however, cut down on the flow of goods available for current consumption, and this, coupled with the long neglect of quality and assortment in consumer goods, must have impaired over-all incentives to work. The missing piece in this puzzle, it seems to me, emerges out of the vast amount of training that has taken place and the advances in education. Both of these have served to satisfy particular preferences in consumption. Both have also contributed much to the rapid rise in the capabilities of the main industrial labor force, making it more productive. Counting all inputs, labor is quantitatively larger than all the rest of the inputs together. A marked improvement in the quality of the labor input, therefore, could be exceedingly important in achieving economic growth.

The improvement of capability is one of the major tenets of Soviet ideology. It is clear that this tenet is firmly held when it comes to making the labor force more effective in doing the kinds of skilled work required to operate a technically advanced economy, and also when it comes to making a people aware of and appreciative of their past cultural attainments. This tenet, however, would appear to rule out some types of qualities in man, namely, the development of a faculty for the critical evaluation of doctrines and the creative talents in the fine arts. Individual Russians, when pressed, tell one that this has been happening only because of "practical considerations" pertaining to the winning of an industrial base, economic growth, national power and "security," which have until now been so demanding that there have been neither resources nor room for the many highly talented Russians who wanted to make their contributions in the arts. Criticism of fundamental doctrines, a central part of university life in Western Europe and the United States, invites social disturbances that Soviet ideology will not tolerate.

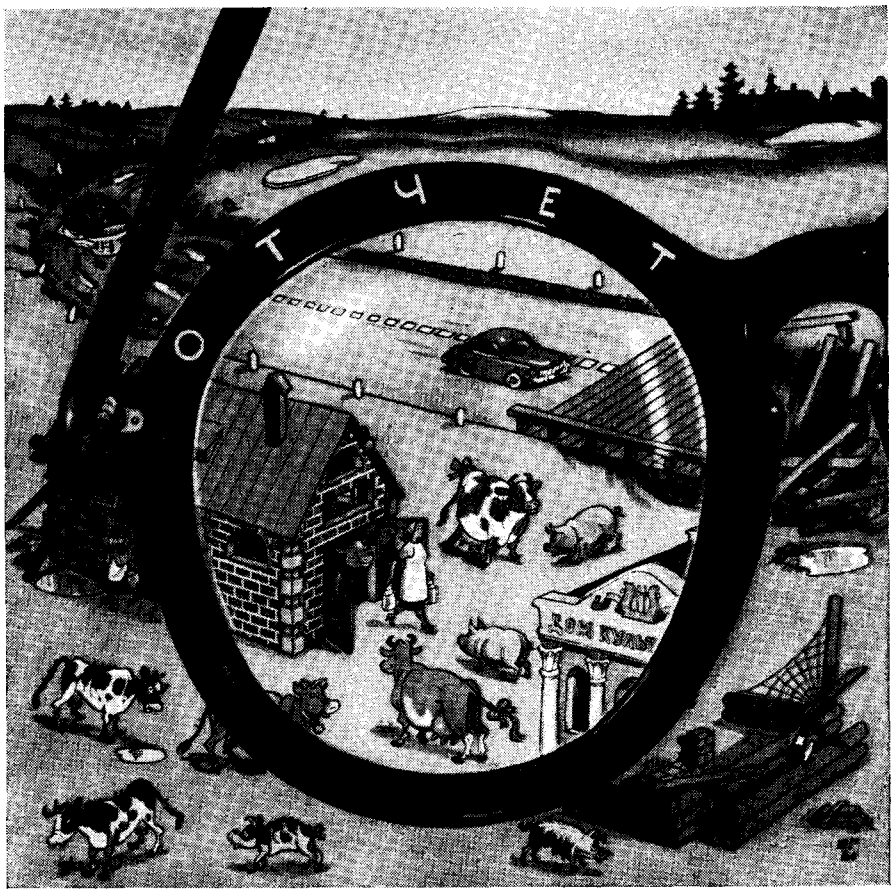
THUS, up to a point, the support that Soviet doctrine gives to improving the quality of human effort contributes much to the task of achieving economic growth. National health programs fall into this class. Education rates very high on this score. On-the-job training and all manner of study programs in and about industrial plants are in this category.

There are obvious signs that suggest that self-improvement is rated high by many people. Where people happen to stand in line waiting to be served, perhaps one in five will be reading a book; so do many while they are riding a bus. Serious books are abundant and inexpensive. In plant after plant, whenever a question was asked that provided even a faint excuse, we would be told with obvious pride and sincerity about the provisions that the particular plant had made for training and study programs to improve the capabilities of workers at all levels.

Soviet ideology has given rise to many doctrines that serve as rules for conduct and social control. Such doctrines abound in economic affairs. Some of these have been the negative; for example, marginal analysis, interest, and rent are deemed to be mere capitalistic instrumentalities. But the Soviet Union cannot hide all of the mistakes it has made as a direct result of its neglect of these particular economic tools. On the positive side, Soviet ideology has no doubt greatly strengthened the belief that it is important to improve the quality of human effort. This aspect of their ideology may also be treated as a doctrine having particular cultural and economic implications. However critical one may be of the cultural component, it results in rules of action that expand the rate of investments in human beings, investments that improve the capabilities that are useful in economic endeavor. Accordingly, this part of Soviet ideology may serve them well indeed; it would appear to give the Soviet a substantial economic advantage over most of Western Europe in improving the quality of the labor force. Although the United States has done much better on this score than has Western Europe generally, our achievements in improving human capabilities are not so much a consequence of economic insights or motives as of the fact that our political democracy serves a widely based electorate, and the belief that education for all people is essential if our form of government is to function successfully.

No doubt there are several reasons for the eagerness of people in the Soviet to acquire knowledge and skills. Traditional attitudes have been favorable; Soviet ideology has encouraged it; and material incentives have acted as a strong inducement, as have expanded opportunities for social mobility.

It is by no means easy, however, to see clearly the incentives to work and



—*Krokodil*

"Optical Illusion"

This cartoon by Soviet cartoonist Y. Gant satirizes the practice of submitting so-called eyewash reports to exaggerate the beauty of farms. The eyeglasses are labeled "Report."

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improve one's capabilities even in one's own society, much less in a society as different as the Soviet. Forced labor, which until very recently must have been a large component in the Soviet, is far removed from the inducements of normal economic incentives. The persecution and political uncertainty facing millions of farm people in their efforts to win some additional income from their plots have beset them with serious negative incentives, do what they may. Nor do these two exhaust the groups of people in the Soviet who have been deemed to be socially undesirable and who have been penalized, if not eliminated. Surely no casual observations can detect the role that coercion plays in enforcing labor discipline. The 1956 decree should have improved the status of workers, but in practice this decree may not have put an end to the use of coercion in maintaining labor discipline. There still may be serious penalties for unexcused absence from work; social security benefits may be manipulated, and economic pressures to keep workers from leaving one job may still be enforced. Every worker presumably must have a "labor pass book," which could readily serve as a serious coercive device. Then, too, how can one assess the effects of long neglect and the recent improvements in consumer goods upon incentives to work?

Nevertheless, I would venture the view that, for the main stream of industrial workers, Soviet planners and administrators have been outstandingly successful in developing a system of incentives coupled with state assistance to induce such workers at all levels to improve their capabilities. Thus, in improving the quality of human effort—an exceedingly important aspect of economic development—it is altogether possible that the Soviet is doing well indeed and that we might very well gain useful insights from the country in this connection. This assessment may seem paradoxical, for it implies that in bringing such incentives to bear the Soviet has been more orthodox than we have been in applying particular "dictates" of classical economics.

THE incentives of labor discipline to "induce" an intensive pace of work are obvious in the sense that they are geared to piecework. The vast majority of the so-called production workers in the plants that we saw were paid on a piecework basis. For the administrative personnel, including technicians and engineers, although they receive a salary that is relatively small, there are many types of bonuses that they earn for specific performances above established norms, and thus they too can substantially enhance their total earnings.

The incentives to improve one's capabilities by participating in one of the many study programs consist of various amounts of time off to study, with pay and related assistance. More important still are the promotions, entailing an increase in pay, that go to those who successfully complete such study programs. Nor have these incentives been rigid; on the contrary, they seem to be fairly flexible in meeting changing supply-and-demand situations affecting the value of labor.

Several other observations need to be made to place the discussion in perspective. Among them is the fact that, although elementary education is compulsory in the Soviet Union, it is still very uneven. It is much better in urban centers than in most of the countryside because of differences in quality of teachers, in the number of days children attend school, and in number of years they attend. While more than half the population is classified as rural, it accounts for only about two-fifths of those persons who have completed the elementary school and one-fourth of those who have completed the equivalent of our high school. These differences are a major obstacle to the movement of rural people to the cities and to access to the better jobs. Why more is not done to assist a larger number of farm workers to transfer to urban areas and enter the industrial labor force is hard to understand in view of the active part the state is prepared to play in other respects.

Another development that is frequently out of focus in what is being said and written about Soviet education in the United States bears on Soviet secondary education. While it is true that there has been a rapid expansion in the number of students enrolled, from 1,500,000 in 1950-51 to fully 5,000,000 by 1954-55 (but down somewhat since then, to 4,200,000 in 1958-59), less than one-half of those of high school age (fourteen to seventeen) are in school, compared to nearly nine-tenths of such persons in the United States. The United States labor force is already well stocked with persons who have attended high school; over 30 per cent of the labor force has completed four years of high school, (another 20 per cent has had one to three years in high school). In the Soviet, if one assumes that *all* those who have completed secondary school, and are not attending universities and institutes, are in the labor force, they comprise about 9 per cent of the labor force. Employers in the United States have access to a labor force with much more education than do directors of enterprises in the Soviet Union, and this difference no doubt has a bearing on the amount and kinds of training programs that the Soviet is engaged in to speed up its industrialization.

Reading "Krokodil" in Park of Culture and Rest, Kharkov.

IN plant after plant we obtained information on programs under way to improve the capabilities of workers. Some of these were for engineers, technicians, and directors who as a rule had not only completed a secondary education but also had had some years at an advanced institute (college-level instruction). Other programs served those who wanted to complete their secondary education. Most of the workers who participate in such programs, however, were doing so largely on a part-time basis during off-hours or through correspondence courses. Their training and study may be closely akin to our on-the-job training. Our observations, unfortunately, were not sufficient to form a basis for any useful comparisons. Moreover, even if our observations on the nature of what is accomplished in these in-plant technicums had been more complete, very little is known about the amount and scope of on-the-job training that is underway in the United States.

The unevenness of elementary education, the small proportion of the members of the labor force who have completed a secondary education, and the possibility that most of the study programs in the Soviet plants may be closely akin to our on-the-job training do not alter the fact that the Soviet has been rapidly improving the capabilities of the main stream of its industrial labor force. Soviet ideology strongly supports this objective; the people of Russia value education and self-improvement highly; and Soviet planners and administrators are notably successful in pursuing this important objective.

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STORM SIGNALS FOR THE WEST

By HANS HEYMANN

THE preceding survey shows that large and important areas of weakness exist in Soviet economic management, weaknesses that are deeply embedded in the Soviet system. The elements of waste, of overstandardization, overcentralization, the unresponsiveness to demand, and the obscurity of criteria all add up to a highly critical appraisal of Soviet economic management.

What worries me is that I find all of this appraisal coinciding strikingly with the impression I formed on my most recent visit to the Soviet Union; and whenever I find such close coincidence I become a little worried.

Our group of air transport specialists formed, if anything, an even more overpowering impression of Soviet clumsiness, shoddiness, and waste in the area of civilian aviation, which after all is not so very far removed from the high-priority area of military aviation. And we ended up by asking ourselves: "Is this the phase of the system that pretends to rival us in open competition on the world scene, that will outproduce us and outperform us?" It did not seem conceivable. And this is where I would like to introduce some special caveats.

It seems to me that there is something inherently distorting in the very nature of exchanges of technical delegations, especially so far as U. S. visits to the Soviet Union are concerned, because they tend to accentuate the negative evaluations.

One cause of this may be the defensive psychological reaction we experience when we are plunged into the austere, drab, and uncongenial Soviet environment, which openly challenges our institutions and our values. We respond by vigorously justifying and defending our own institutions, and in the process we tend to blunt some of our critical faculties regarding our own institutions and become excessively sensitized to every Soviet deficiency. We certainly experienced this phenomenon on our aviation tour.

To a man, we marveled at the irrationality of Soviet investment policy in providing a vast armada of transport aircraft to serve a mere trickle of scheduled flights. Where Aeroflot requires 250 aircraft to do its meager job, we could have done the same job with perhaps 75 or 100 aircraft. But few of us recall the peculiar nature of our own irrationalities in aviation, the hothouse economic environment in which civil aviation operates in this country, and the very questionable multibillion-dollar investment decision that plunged us into the jet age at the very moment when the four-engine piston airplane had only begun to come into its prime. Clearly waste and irrationality are not exclusive qualities of the Soviet economy. But it is difficult to remember this while you are there on the spot, extolling and defending U. S. institutions to the hilt.

There is the constant temptation to compare Soviet reality not with U. S. reality but with our own mental image of U. S. reality—a market-oriented free-enterprise textbook model of the U. S. economy—and this temptation is difficult to resist.

BUT there is an even more important way in which the technical exchange visits may impair our sense of perspective. It is the lack of opportunity to make comparisons over any substantial length of time. Inevitably, the visitor is afforded only a snapshot view of the society, leaving out of account the dynamics of the situation which may so importantly affect our judgment.

Again our transport tour proved instructive in this regard, since it turned out that I was the only member of our group who had been to the Soviet Union on a previous visit. While my fellow travelers' major reaction was one of shock and dismay at Aeroflot's cavalier attitude toward the convenience of the passenger and its indifference toward the more sophisticated concept of flight safety, I was struck by the enormous progress that had been made since my previous torture four years earlier. Then cold-oil take-offs and hedgehopping in two-engine piston aircraft were the order of the day.

Now there is a nation-wide radar-monitored air traffic control system, and there are many shiny jets. Passengers are still inconvenienced, and efficient service is apparently a concept unknown to Aeroflot, but there are now 25,000,000 passengers per year who brave these hardships, as compared with only 5,000,000 four years ago. It is clumsy. It is unsophisticated. It is inefficient. It is irrational. But somehow it is putting out the work. There is change. There is progress. There is growth on every side. But one must introduce the dimension of time into the equation to see it.

I am not arguing that the deficiencies, the weaknesses, the internal conflicts facing the Soviet economy are not important, that all that counts is results. Past results, impressive as they are, are not all that matter. To the extent that we are concerned with the future, we cannot ignore the vital question of the ability of the Soviet economy to grapple with its problems, to adapt itself and to transform itself.

The search for more effective organizational forms that is going on in the Soviet Union today is now of much greater significance to the performance of the Soviet economy than it once was. At one time there may well have been some logic to the crudities that have so long characterized Soviet planning. The more the economy approaches maturity, however, the more glaring do the evidences of waste become. And the Soviet state, whether it wants to or not, must try to transform itself from a mere taskmaster exacting maximum effort to something more akin to an efficiency expert seeking organizational flexibility and economic common sense.

HOW well has this transformation progressed so far? The preceding reports show, it seems to me, that the progress has been too slow. What we see is a very gradual tendency to restrict the role of pure arbitrariness in economic decisions, some elimination of the most glaring examples of irrational pricing, and some success in creating slightly better order at the micro-economic level. But there is resistance all the way and no sign so far of a willingness to face up to the full requirement of reform.

It is too early to say, however, that fatal rigidity and hardening of the ideological categories has set in. After all, it is only seven years since the death of Stalin released the Soviet managerial community from its stultifying bondage, seven years during which truly remarkable changes,

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adaptations, and innovations have occurred. It is hardly surprising that the Soviet leaders should have concentrated on the easy reforms first and should have been reluctant to undertake those reforms that could well modify the very structure of their authority and the fundamental distribution of power in the society. It will not be easy for them to tackle these fundamental reforms, but we would be rash indeed to predict that Soviet society cannot wrench itself loose from its ideological moorings to undertake this painful effort.

But what if it doesn't? What if the Soviet economy fails to solve the problems of organizational efficiency that confront it? Will this spell the decline and fall of the Soviet empire? Of course not. At worst it will mean a significant retardation in the Soviet rate of economic growth. Yet even this would certainly not be without its serious consequences for Soviet long-term policy, with its heavy reliance on future growth to provide the resources needed to support its ambitious goals.

But it is important to bear in mind that it would be a retardation from an extraordinarily high present rate. Even if the present industrial growth rate of 9 per cent were to decline to 5 per cent or 6 per cent it would still leave the Soviet leaders with an impressive annual increment of resources, more than enough to be an interminable source of trouble for us at times and places of their choosing.

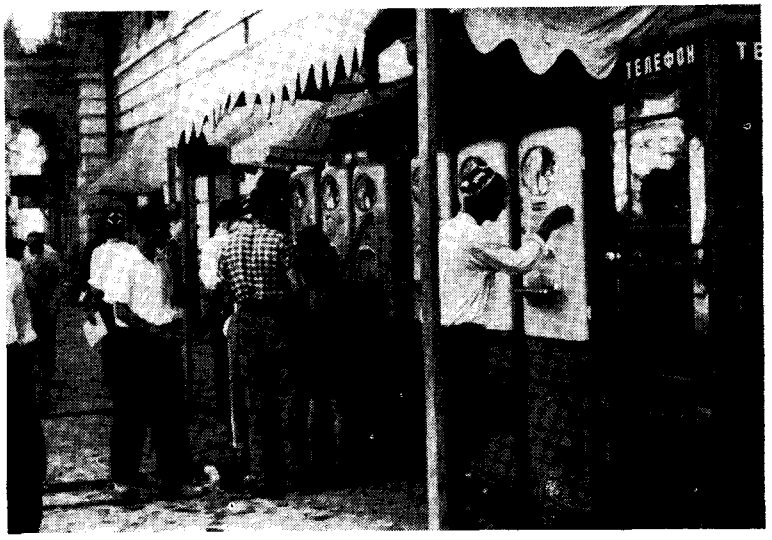
I wish I could conclude on a reassuring note, but this is not possible. In spite of weaknesses and irrationality, in spite of the shoddy physical aspect that so repels the visitor, the Soviet economy remains a formidable competitor, a competitor not in the field of efficiency or sophisticated problem-solving, but in the area of consistent, single-minded pursuit of a set of political objectives which unfortunately are not compatible with our own.

It has already amply demonstrated its skill in using these limited resources to make life more difficult for us. The rapid further growth of these resources is not an appealing prospect for us to contemplate. We ignore such a competitor at our peril.

About the Pictures

The photographs in this special section on the Soviet economy were gathered from a number of sources to illustrate various aspects of life in the USSR. Those pictures for which no credit is given are by Herbert Stein, director of the CED's Research Division.

A cooperative market in Kiev



A Tashkent street scene

Members of CED group visit a hog farm

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—*Horace Sutton*

Sochi in the Crimea

A Tashkent market

An interior view of GUM

—*H.S.*

GUM Department Store in Moscow

—*H.S.*

St. Basil's in Moscow

—*H.S.*

Red Square in Moscow

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WHAT'S BEHIND THE GOLD PROBLEM?

By PER JACOBSSON, *managing director of the International Monetary Fund. This article consists of excerpts from a talk presented to the trustees of the Committee for Economic Development.*

WHY DID the gold situation change from 1957 to 1958? There were, I think, two reasons. In 1957, the year most affected by the Suez crisis, the United States had a balance of payments surplus, but by the following year there was a deficit of $3.5 billion and in 1959 one of $3.8 billion. Once the difficulties of the Suez crisis had been overcome—and they proved less intractable than had generally been feared—European industries, with capacity restored and considerably modernized, were able to deal promptly and efficiently with orders, and were thus able for the first time since the war to compete effectively with American industries. . . . Secondly, the change resulted from the fiscal and monetary policies pursued in the United States.

In late 1957, after the recession had begun, there emerged a deficit in the federal budget, which finally reached $12.4 billion for the fiscal year 1958-59, and there was an expansion of credit of very much the same magnitude. In a smaller country, strongly expansionary fiscal and credit policies soon lead to a "spilling-over" of purchasing power, and thus have an adverse effect on the balance of payments. I hold the belief that this is very much what happened here.

The American authorities soon realized that doubts were beginning to be expressed about the strength of the dollar, and that fears were spreading in fairly wide quarters. Obviously, steps had to be taken, and the first thing that was done was to alter the fiscal and credit policies. This was also desirable for internal reasons, as soon as the business trend turned upward in 1959. Indeed, in 1960 there was a surplus of over $1 billion in the federal budget, and over a period of fifteen months, taken as a whole, there was no net increase in the money supply.

What has been the effect on the balance of payments? Exports have risen, helped considerably by the boom in Europe, while imports have remained very much the same. As a result, the export surplus in merchandise trade in 1960 may amount to more than $4 billion, as compared with $1 billion in 1959. Net income from investments and services should come to roughly $2 billion. This total of more than $6 billion would be sufficient to cover fully the present rate of U. S. Government expenditures abroad, including expenditure for military purposes and official foreign assistance of all kinds.

But there remains an over-all deficit in the balance of payments which is likely to exceed $3 billion, resulting from private long-term investment abroad and the outflow of short-term funds, mainly to Europe, in response to the interest-rate differential, which, until recently, has been about 2 per cent. These movements of funds—and the same is true of government loans—have as their counterpart the net acquisition of foreign assets, and from this point of view the deficit is perhaps less perturbing than a deficit on current account would be. However, an over-all deficit of $3 billion per annum can clearly not be allowed to continue forever. In trying to decide how and when the deficit can be eliminated or even reversed, we have to consider particularly the prospect for capital movements in the years ahead.

I think it is fair to expect that Europe will have more capital available than the United States, or indeed other continents, after meeting its own needs. . . . It is therefore to be expected that there may fairly soon be a tendency for capital to flow from Europe to other continents, including the United States. The capital outflow from Europe may well take many forms: The financing of international trade, repurchase of assets now owned by Americans in Europe, purchase of stock exchange securities, as well as direct investment in the United States by Europeans. . . .

I do not say this to promise immediate relief for the U. S. balance of payments, but if relatively cautious policies are continued in this country, the task of eliminating the deficit should not be too difficult or too protracted. . . .

The present gold stock of the United States is now some $18 billion, and short-term foreign liabilities—excluding those due to international institutions, which are a kind apart—have reached about the same figure. From a banking point of view, to have 100 per cent gold backing for short-term liabilities is a very sound position. But every banker knows how embarrassing would be a loss of confidence, leading to a run on his liquid assets, even though he himself has every confidence that his position is good enough to weather any storm. It is not in the interest of those foreigners who hold short-term dollar assets, on which interest is earned, to exchange them for gold yielding no interest, and as long as the United States pursues policies that seem to them to insure that the value of the dollar will be maintained, it will be to their advantage to keep their dollar holdings.

THE recent flurry on the gold market in London is noteworthy in this connection. For a few days the price of gold rose to over $40 per fine ounce, as compared with the official price of approximately $35. Such an increase was unfortunate because it could have provoked a psychological chain reaction engendering further distrust in the dollar, especially since it seems that at least a proportion of the buying was done on behalf of American clients. The price has come down to less than $36, but it is perhaps too early to say that all the "heat" is out of the market.

Questions have been asked about the financial role that the International Monetary Fund could play in this context. The U. S. Government has substantial drawing rights in the Fund, some of which it could use almost automatically. Being the owner of so much gold of its own, however, it has preferred to rely on its own resources, and this reliance has been a well-justified display of strength.

From a more fundamental point of view, the balancing of the federal budget and the cautious credit policies of the past two years have inspired confidence, and although the recent outflow of funds on capital account has been partly converted into gold by foreign central banks, there has been little or no reduction in the total amount of dollar balances held by other countries. But people are naturally asking the question: What will happen if there is a recession in the United States, leading to a deficit in the budget and the pursuit of an easy-money policy?

In a speech last September at the annual meeting of the

(*Continued on page* 76)

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SOVIET-AMERICAN RELATIONS

A President's Address That Was Never Delivered

By DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

WHEN in 1945 I was in Russia, my stay necessarily had to be short. Nevertheless, I then insisted that I could not return to my post of duty in Berlin until I had paid homage to the valiant defenders of Leningrad against Nazi outrage. After fifteen years' absence, I return here more firmly convinced than ever that this city is a world landmark, an enduring monument to the noblest of human traits—superb heroism and cultural progress.

Through many months, the men and women and children of Leningrad withstood siege guns and bombers and swarming armies; hunger and disease and violent death. The whole world watched them through winter months and summer months and winter months again. They wrote for mankind to read, even centuries from now, an epic of courage and sacrifice and unfaltering faith.

In the passage of years, the stones of your city may wear away; the physical image of Leningrad may alter. But wherever men honor the brave and the resolute, never will the memory of the evil siege and the glorious triumph be forgotten.

So today, foremost in my thoughts, even as fifteen years ago this summer, is a salute from the heart to the greatness of Leningrad—to the epic its people wrote in the annals of heroism.

Not by an iota have the years diminished my respect and admiration for the heroes of Leningrad. Quite the contrary. But I must assert as strongly as I can that many of the hopes I then nourished have faded; many of the fears I then tried to brush away have been realized.

Only a few months before my visit here in that year of Russia's and America's mutual triumph, I wrote to the Allied troops who served with me this sentence in an Order of the Day: "Let us have no part in the profitless quarrels in which other men will inevitably engage as to what country, what service, won the European war."

Worse than profitless quarrels have come to pass. Suspicion and rancor and fear, voiced often in the harshest words of threat, too often mark the relations of peoples once tightly joined in a common cause and by a common victory. All of us are at fault that there have been such tragic crimes against friendship.

But our fault will be the most tragic of all crimes if we shrug our shoulders and say, "This sort of thing has always happened"; if we fail, you and I, all of us, to act positively and vigorously that suspicion and rancor and fear be banished.

When I was a boy, we put blinders on horses so they would not shy in fright of a scarecrow, a shadow, a rabbit. But today we human beings deliberately put blinders on ourselves, not to avoid the sight of frightful things, but to ignore a central fact of human existence.

I mean that mankind too often blinds itself to the common lot, to the common purposes, to the common aspirations of humanity everywhere. I mean that all of us too much live in ignorance of our neighbors; or, when we take off our blinders, view them through the contortionist spectacles of propaganda.

And we will continue that way—forever fearful, forever suspicious—until we convince ourselves that the only way to peace is through the mutually open society. Then, at long last, seeing our human neighbors as they really are, we shall come to realize that we need no more fear them than the horse the rabbit.

So I come to this home of heroes with a feeling of inescapable duty upon me to understand better your achievements, your concerns, your beliefs, and your hopes—the great and good you share with all your country.

To reach such understanding is a compelling duty on all Americans; on myself and on my 181,000,000 fellow citizens. To ignore it is as senseless as to read only the odd-numbered pages in a book.

And what applies to Americans should apply to Russians, too. What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander.

Your warm welcome assures me that we can find ways better to understand each other. I hope that you will come to my country in tens of thousands, as Americans have come here, to see and examine our way of life in America.

IF YOU travel over America in our jets you will see *all* America. Our country is not as large as yours. It is crossed and crisscrossed by commercial air lanes. At forty thousand feet on a clear day, nothing can be hidden from a citizen or a visitor who wants to look; miles of countryside lie exposed on either side of the plane. And we don't prohibit cameras or binoculars. Were we to do that, my desk would be buried under complaints from outraged camera fans; the manufacturers and sellers of film and optical wares would give me no rest.

But, most important of all, we would hope you could see the vigor with which our Republic grows and changes. So seeing you would understand, I think, that our way of life is not destined to wither and to be buried in the limbo of history's failures. You would understand, I think, that there is no single inevitable system that will envelop the earth.

And my first compelling duty is matched by another: to assure, to persuade, to convince you that above all else the American people want in this world and in their lives peace with all nations; a peace strong in mutual understanding; a peace warm with friendship; a peace enjoyed in freedom—freedom from war and its threat; freedom from propaganda and its hate; freedom from man-made curtains and walls of every sort that make nations ignorant, suspicious, fearful of each other.

My purpose is not one of debate; but as we welcomed Premier Khrushchev in our nation to describe to us the ideals, procedures, and forms of the Soviet system, I shall,

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This is the draft of a speech that was to have been delivered by President Eisenhower in Leningrad last May. Written before the U-2 incident, the collapse of the Summit conference, and the withdrawal by Premier Khrushchev of the President's invitation to visit the Soviet Union, it is published here because of its historic significance and its relevance to the theme of this issue of SR. The speech appears here by special arrangement with Columbia University Press, which this week is publishing "Peace with Justice," a collection of addresses by President Eisenhower.

without criticism of that system, try to explain the aspirations, principles, and methods on which we operate.

To no more fitting place can I come for the discharge of this duty. Peter, who founded this city, thought of it as a "Window on the West."

Today, I ask you and all Russia to look through your window across eight thousand miles of land and water to my homeland. As you look, I ask that you forget for the moment this or that incident whose nearness in time magnifies and distorts its significance. I ask you instead to remember more than seventeen long decades of friendly, cooperative, profitable relations between our two people.

Remember an American naval hero who became a Russian admiral.

Remember a Russian fleet entering our largest port to hearten and encourage the American Republic in a dark hour when its survival was at stake.

Remember, as we Americans proudly remember, the Russian discovery and exploration and settlement of the forty-ninth state in our Union, Alaska; and how in the most peaceful and friendly of international transactions Russia added half a million square miles to American territory.

Remember the tens upon tens of thousands of Russians who, before your Revolution, found in our ports gateways to freedom from the oppression of tyrants—and a warm, friendly welcome from America.

Remember the hundreds of wartime ships, full-laden with arms and food, sailing to Russia from many American ports. Remember they sailed so that you, who had spent your blood and your treasure in a righteous war, might gain new strength to reach Torgau on the Elbe where Russians and Americans embraced—comrades in arms; partners in victory.

AS YOU look and as you recall those years, I ask that you try better to understand that we Americans seek of you only your cooperation in establishing a peace in which you and we, and every other people, can develop our destinies in freedom.

As I attempt the discharge of these two duties: to convince you of America's decent purposes; to learn and better to understand your way, I have in my mind the words of a distinguished Russian who counseled the American people in an address delivered in Chicago more than sixty years ago. He was Prince Serge Wolkonsky (Sergiei Milhailovich Volkonskii). Permit me to read a paragraph from his talk:

> When you want to learn what a nation is, what a nation is capable of, when you want to know her ideas, her aspirations, her character, when you want to know a nation's soul—do not study her from the reports of the daily papers or the cheap pamphlets which are written for one occasion and the fame of which lasts but a month or two. Learn a nation from the precious contributions she has given to the eternal treasures of humanity; learn her from what she did for universal science, universal art; learn to know the nation from her beacons, from those men she is proud of, and first of all—let politics alone.

So spoke Serge Wolkonsky. We Americans strive to heed his counsel, even the last pungent warning.

Our belief in your right to your form of government, and in the similar right of the American people and every other people, stems from our conviction that each individual has the right to choose his own destiny in freedom. This is the essence of our American heritage.

Our traditions go beyond the oceans which border our country. They have their origins in every country—Russia is certainly one—in which men of courage have challenged authoritarian institutions and have worked to win rights that could not be violated by their rulers. We had then and have today the good fortune to be a haven for men who were determined to remain free.

We have retained our links with the past without revolutionary disruption. But we have changed vastly. We are changing now. We must change—since progress creates new situations and our society is far from perfect.

If the American system is described simply as "capitalism," its whole essence is missed. We hold to the freedom of an individual to apply his talents and means of fulfilling the needs of his community and to profit from this effort, if he can meet his neighbors' needs better or more cheaply than his competitor. At the same time we engage in voluntary cooperatives, especially in the fields of agricultural sales, housing, medicine, and social works. We assign government an economic role—when government can do for the people what they themselves cannot do so well or do at all.

Choosing what works best in each situation is characteristic of Americans. They will study and test any worthy proposal; continuously try new ways and change old patterns in a most worthy purpose to assure the pursuit of happiness by the individual in freedom and dignity under a framework of law legislated by freely elected representatives responsive to the will of the majority.

THE SYSTEM which provides us with the best opportunity to work toward the realization of our ideals may not suit you. That is for you to decide. Yours does not suit us. We do not believe that our system any more than yours is the inevitable solution for the other peoples of the world. They must, as we are doing, seek their own way, taking what they wish from the experience of others.

Our concern is that it be genuinely their way, that it be the product of their choice, of their heritage, and of their growth, not of interference by other powers.

We work for a world in which this diverse development will be guaranteed. We do not seek a world divided into coexisting camps locked in a struggle for supremacy. We hope for and work for a single world community which recognizes and respects a code of international law governing the relations between diverse peoples.

Briefly, plainly, candidly, I have tried to tell you of the American system and purpose as I see them. So complex a way of life, so varied in its expressions, comprising the lives of so many millions of people and so many ventures in human affairs cannot be compressed into a talk of fifteen minutes—or fifteen hours, for that matter. But I hope that I may have aroused in you an interest to learn more about us, more often to look through this "Window on the West" to America where, even as here, a just and enduring peace among all nations is the great human goal.

If you give me that response, I shall be in your debt all my life.

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SR's BUSINESSMAN OF THE YEAR

DR. FRANK STANTON

Communicator, Crusader, Educator

FOR a moment at least, the communicator-turned-crusader could rest content on his sword. It was the night of September 26, 1960, in Chicago, the hub and heartland of America.

In the studios of Station WBBM-TV the historic confrontation between Presidential candidates John F. Kennedy and Richard M. Nixon in the first of television's "Great Debates" had just ended and a new era in American political campaigning had opened.

The tense, perspiring aspirants for the most powerful office in the world exchanged congratulations with Dr. Frank Stanton, president of the Columbia Broadcasting System, whose single-minded advocacy of such a face-to-face encounter for eight long years had finally borne fruit. By the time the four debates were over, an estimated 101,000,000 individual citizens had watched and listened, 33,000,000 more than the record-breaking 68,000,000 voters who subsequently turned out on election day.

For incoming President Kennedy and for outgoing Vice President Nixon, as well as for *Saturday Review*, the "Businessman of the Year" must be Dr. Stanton.

Saturday Review, convinced that the expanding responsibilities of business in our society demand that forward-looking executives serve the public interest as an inseparable part of their private corporate interest, has established an annual citation of "Businessman of the Year." *SR*'s 1961 citation goes to a man who, in an age of unprecedented communications facilities, occupies a central command post of great sensitivity and responsibility.

The chief executive officer of CBS must not only administer the complex corporate affairs of a leading network successfully – i.e., profitably – but he must also oversee an intricate mechanism, even more revolutionary than the printing press, which entertains and informs millions of Americans in their homes every day and inexorably shapes the patterns of public taste, values, and attitudes that just as inexorably shape America.

THIS is a staggering enough burden. Yet, in the midst of these manifold activities, he has found time to make his energies and experience available to the national government for projects of major import and to work for the improvement of higher education in this country.

He is a trustee of the Rand Corporation, a government enterprise in which a tremendous concentration of brainpower has been assembled to think strategically about the world situation for the Air Force, for the State Department, and in other vital areas of national policy. He also served as a member of President Eisenhower's group of experts in a far-ranging study of world economic practices, and is a member of the Business Advisory Council of the Department of Commerce.

A graduate psychologist and professional student of the social order, he collaborates officially in this field with the Board of Overseers and faculty of Harvard University as an integral part of Harvard's educational system. He is also chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Ford Foundation-sponsored Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences at Stanford University. To safeguard the American public's right to know, Dr. Stanton has constantly fought against abridgements of the full access of all media to news as well as the press's historic guarantees of free expression. In an address last year before the American Society of Newspaper Editors, he said:

"The most important single problem that all journalism in America–the newspapers and broadcasting–has in common [is] freedom of access to the information that it is absolutely essential for the American people to have if this democracy, and democracy everywhere, is not to go under.

". . . the fact of the matter is that journalism in this country is not wholly free. It is half-free and half-slave. It

(*Continued on page* 101)

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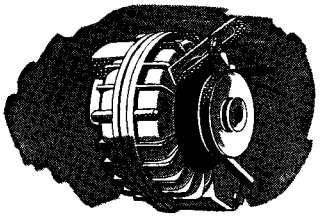
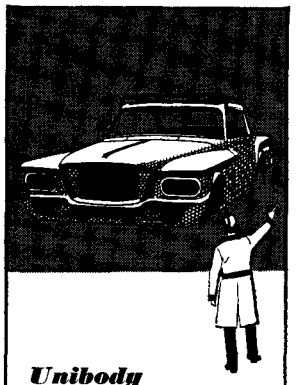
Will your new car have all these good things?

Only the 1961 cars from Chrysler Corporation offer all these features right now

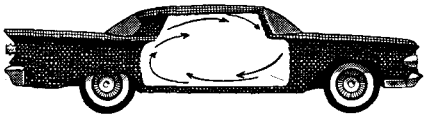


Amazing new Alternator makes batteries last longer. Battery stays full of juice even when engine's idling with radio and heater on. New Alternator means faster cold-weather starts, longer battery life.

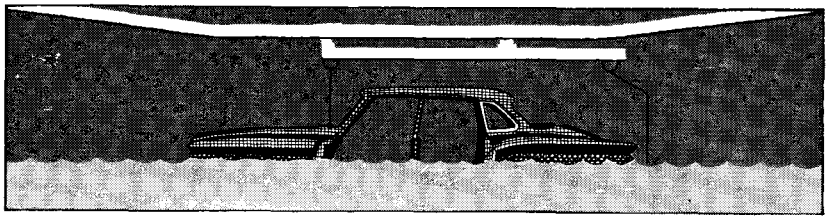
Torsion-Aire Ride—why the experts call these America's best road cars. No dip, no squat, no sway, with Torsion-Aire. Unique combination of torsion bars up front, leaf springs in back holds the car steady as you go—even on rough roads, railroad tracks, tight curves.



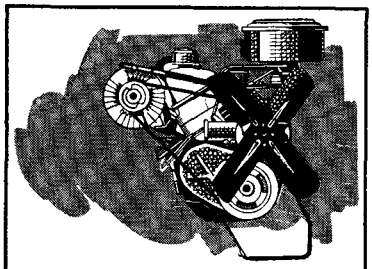
Unibody Construction surrounds you with silence... and extra space. Because it's a welded unit, Unibody helps banish squeaks and rattles by eliminating joints that could loosen and get noisy ... opens up extra inches of stretch-out room inside by shaving excess bulk.



Factory-built air conditioning available for every car. From compact Valiant to luxurious Imperial, this is air conditioning built especially for these cars by Chrysler Corporation's famous Airtemp Division, not by outside contractors.

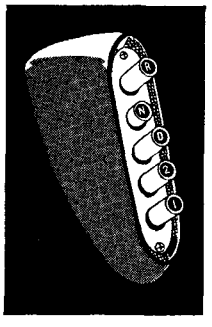


Rust is just a memory with 7-soak rust protection. Car bodies are soaked seven times in special cleaning and rust preventive solutions to guard metal from the inside out. Your 1961 Chrysler Corporation car will keep its good looks—and higher resale value—for years.



20% more go, 15% less gas—with the new Economy-Slant Six. This new engine squeezes more power out of less gas than any six we've ever had before. 15% less, in fact. Available in Plymouth, Valiant, Dart and Lancer.

You can lock all doors from the driver's seat, automatically. Just press the switch on the dash and all doors, back and front, lock automatically. And they stay locked, until you want them open. A wonderful family option.



Pushbutton controls make driving more effortless than ever. A flick of your finger puts our 3-speed TorqueFlite transmission to work. Available in every model.

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The New Capitalism

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author of the following guest editorial, written especially for this issue of SR, has had a long career in American industry. A lawyer, he is a former vice president and now a director of the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Company, and a professor in the Graduate School of Industrial Administration at Carnegie Institute of Technology.*

UNDER the steady impact of global economic change, the words with which we have traditionally labeled various economic systems have become less and less reliable guides to analysis and action. Words like *socialism*, *capitalism*, and *Communism* no longer represent such airtight economic compartments as they once did. Rather, each system tends to borrow from the others, adopting and adapting whatever it can use. In the economic ferment of the 1960s, it is a dangerous mistake to view the various systems as either all black or all white.

This fact was brought home to me with particular force when I taught recently at the Salzburg Seminar in American Studies. The American economy was the subject at this seminar of America's most easterly cultural outpost in Western Europe, an institution sustained by private U. S. philanthropy.

Attending the month-long session were young business executives, university faculty members, and government officials who had come to Austria from seventeen countries of Western Europe. Except for Yugoslavia, every country represented considered itself stoutly non-Communist and its economy capitalistic. Yet in the discussions it quickly became apparent that within the broad framework of capitalism many gradations can exist. It also became apparent that European industrialists are considerably less fearful of economic admixtures than are many of their American counterparts.

Some executives in important European industries, for example, saw nothing amiss in the fact that Renault is government-owned. Even though the government does own it, they pointed out, it is a self-sustaining enterprise whose growth is based on its profits. Furthermore, they observed, the privately owned Citroën's popular Deux Chevaux outsells the competing Renault. Government-owned enterprise is not invariably a big bad wolf in the eyes of European businessmen.

This was made particularly clear when one of my colleagues on the seminar faculty—a distinguished American professor of economics and an expert on U.S. Government trade regulations—spoke in his lectures on the inefficiency of any economic activity conducted by government. After some searching questions by those attending, a special session was arranged at which representatives from France, Italy, Sweden, England, and Austria told about enterprises successfully operated by government in their countries.

At another meeting, bureaucrats, free enterprise industrialists, and academicians all agreed that two factors loom large in the astoundingly vigorous postwar economic growth of that country: the child allowances instituted by pre-de Gaulle governments (a father of six can retire and live on his child allowances), and the exploration for and discovery of oil both in Continental France and in the Sahara. Both the child allowances and the oil exploration were and are financed and maintained by the government.

Nor are such varied economic landscapes confined to the "capitalist" countries of the West. At one session of the Salzburg Seminar, I met with a small group to discuss Peter F. Drucker's "Concept of the Corporation," in which Mr. Drucker says that a society that accepts economic advancement as socially desirable will find the profit motive the most efficient device for achieving it. Some members of the group thought the statement should be examined in detail. Russia, they pointed out, has enjoyed more economic advancement recently under Communism than America has achieved under capitalism. Does Russia then have something that can be called profit? Yes, it does—in the sense that Russia has been consuming less than it produces. The surplus is the profit for the whole of the Russian economy. But American industrialists usually equate profits with our system of private enterprise—not with Communism.

Many such similarities between aspects of Communism and aspects of capitalism were pointed out by the group, among whom were young business executives in some of the great European corporations. Yet they seemed to feel no compulsion to pound the table and inveigh about Communism.

AMERICANS are of course generally aware that mixtures of socialism and capitalism are combined in the European economies. But many have assumed that these impure forms of capitalism would fail. They are not failing, however. While the U.S. economy has suffered three rather serious setbacks in the last decade, Europe has moved steadily ahead. True, Marshall Plan dollars were a great psychological help in the early period of Europe's recovery from devastation and escape from Communism. But now it is Europe's own economic thrust—not American aid—that is creating new economic frontiers in the Old World. It may well be fatal—the word is not too strong—for America if we fail to perceive and understand contemporary successes, not only in Europe but also elsewhere in the world, successes that in many cases seem to contradict our political and economic preconceptions, or our apparent misconceptions about either creeping socialism or galloping capitalism.

—LELAND HAZARD.

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LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

ITEM FOR THE AGENDA

THE QUESTION of whether a National Peace Corps is enough, as opposed to an international program, is certainly a real one, as George Fersh points out in his guest editorial [*SR*, Dec. 24]. However, I would hope that the first question posed and answered will instead be "How can we establish *any* Peace Corps—national or international?"

While Mr. Fersh's international corps idea has exciting potential, I would hope this nation would pit its immediate effort to simply establishing the idea. If this pressing need were successfully met (hopefully, by the United States rather than Russia), it would serve as the testing ground where the corps idea could prove itself. Later the program could easily be enlarged through the United Nations. From this observer's standpoint, the U. S. desperately needs the good "public relations" that would come if this country's initiative pushed the Peace Corps to reality.

Certainly Mr. Fersh is correct when he notes that the nation's college youths are watching the Peace Corps idea. . . .

JERRY M. TINKER,
Student Body President,
University of Redlands.

Redlands, Calif.

WHAT INSPIRES A WRITER?

GRANVILLE HICKS's criticism of the *Esquire* speeches [*SR*, Dec. 24] seems to me quite valid, at least as far as John Cheever's remarks are concerned. To the delight of the audience at Berkeley, Cheever painted a whimsical picture of suburban society and how impossible it is to take seriously. His point seemed to be that contemporary life in America is therefore peculiarly intractable to literary treatment. But why should the absurdity of society be any less inspiring to the serious literary artist today than it was to Jane Austen or Chekhov or Proust?

SEYMOUR CHATMAN,
Department of English,
University of California.

Berkeley, Calif.

AFTERMATH OF REVOLUTION

EVIDENTLY, there are two United States of America. One is the U. S. of generous, alert people who will not be shut in by provincial dogmas, who will open their windows to the world and courageously tell and write the truth about the lives and hopes of these hungry nations which, at your very doorstep, are fighting for a better life. This is the America of C. Wright Mills. The other is the U. S. of closed windows, witch-hunting crusades, intellectual fear, facile tags, and the support of all the backward forces in the underdeveloped countries: it is the U. S. that is stoned in Lima, burned in Guayaquil, spat upon in Caracas: it is the U. S. of Jules Dubois.

"I miss Ike!"

Space would not suffice to show the bad faith and cynicism of Dubois's arguments against C. Wright Mills and the Cuban Revolution in his review of "Listen, Yankee" [*SR*, Dec. 17]. It is sad to think that this sort of McCarthyism is the response an honest North American writer gets when he decides to tell you, the North American people, of the troubles, opportunities, and hopes of a country that has been so exploited, politically and economically, by U. S. interests . . . .

"Listen, Yankee": We've been in Cuba. We've seen thousands of new schools, new hospitals, new roads, new housing, new symphony orchestras and theatre groups, new popular-priced books, new crops rising on the once-dead land of the huge estates. We've seen a people grown confident, proud, better off, consuming more than ever before—which accounts for the so-called shortages Dubois bandies about. We've seen the old order of privileges and exploitation destroyed. We've seen a people massively behind its revolutionary leaders. We've seen an incorruptible government at work. We've seen the wealth and the future of Cuba, for the first time, in the hands of the Cuban people. We've seen the hope of all Latin America in the faces of the new Cubans.

Don't let yourselves be fooled, Yankees. So Dubois thinks that the destruction of "sensible and progressive U. S. corporations" would bring about a "deteriorations in [the] standard of living" of the Latin American countries? Ask the Guatemalan banana collector, the Peruvian miner, the Colombian peasant, if he ever knew of a "sensible and progressive" U. S. corporation. Ask him if his "standard of living" can be more "deteriorated" than it already is. Ask him who pays the low wages, buys the raw produce at a low price, sells the manufactured goods at a high price, breaks the strikes, props up the unpopular governments, buys off the right-wing press. ask him, Yankee. You'll be stoned. You'll be spat at. Dubois won't fool us. He's trying to fool you. Please, Yankee, don't be fooled.

We, the friends of C. Wright Mills in Mexico, vigorously protest against Jules Dubois's fallacious criticism, and with equal vigor back C. Wright Mills, whom we consider the true voice of the North American people, for his honesty, his courage, and his awareness of the new forces in the underdeveloped world.

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Mexico, D. F.

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MUSIC TO MY EARS

Schuller Meets Balanchine—Barber—de Saram

GUNTHER SCHULLER, proponent of what he calls "third stream" music—a confluence of "Muddy Waters" and the "Moldau" flowing around, in all probability, the Rock of Ages—had his most auspicious opportunity to date when George Balanchine, the Modern Jazz Quartet, and various other resources of City Center were put at his disposal. The resulting ballet is called "Modern Jazz: Variants," which is an accurate description of mode and procedure, if nothing else.

Actually, that is as far as one can go in describing the work, which derives from a mode (Modern Jazz) and follows a procedure (variants) which is basic in all jazz. It begins with the "Moldau" trickle coming from the pit orchestra (a twelve-tonish chromatic phrase of no particular direction), joined by an earthier intrusion from the MJQ on stage. Animation and interest gradually come alive, as one and then another of the instruments has a solo variation, the four finally participating together. Each solo has its counterpart in the dancing of Diana Adams and Melissa Hayden and their partners, John Jones and Arthur Mitchell.

As theatre people know, Balanchine has been dealing with the jazz vocabulary and its phrases of movement as far back as "On Your Toes." The problem here has been for him to make his own confluence of action to match Schuller's sound, and if the outcome is amorphous—how could it be otherwise? Steps on point in which hips and torso are describing jazz evolutions as arms and head pursue patterns borrowed from both sides must, necessarily, look like nothing else one has ever seen. Where the work comes to be an invigorating experience is in the wholehearted participation of the Misses Adams and Hayden, set up by the whole-bodied efforts of their Negro partners. Much of it has gaiety, life, and animation, with a delightful interplay of effort among the quartets of musicians and dancers.

More than a little of it, too, was effortful and somewhat static, a consequence, no doubt, of the conscious blending of elements. Perhaps when Schuller can take his crusade in stride and let the music flow where it will, he will make us rejoice with a jazz-derived work of consistent quality. Certainly it should be in company with John Lewis (piano), Milt Jackson (vibes), Connie Kay (drums), and Percy Heath (bass), for the awesome foursome speaks his language subtly and sincerely. The many-talented Schuller added to his other known accomplishments a graphic skill at conducting his own music which might profitably be applied to that of others.

Christmas music in the week after New Year's is akin not merely to warmed-over turkey, but to cold warmed-over turkey, despite which Samuel Barber's "Die Natali" made a more than pleasant impression at its first New York performance by the Boston Symphony (for which it was written) under the direction of Charles Munch. Officially described as "Chorale Preludes for Christmas" (Opus 37), it brings together almost every familiar seasonal tune one can name in a series of variations, combinations, adumbrations, and celebrations which range across a variety of moods to a quiet close on "Silent Night." Along the way, Barber reminds us that there have been vulgar as well as elevated associations in this music, strident woodwinds contrasting with model chords intoned by the strings. A major minor work, rather than a minor major one, it shows Barber's craft being exercised in a lexicon familiar to all, and none the less profitably thereby. Certainly it should solve next year's seasonal problem of "What's new (musically) for Christmas?"

THE same evening also offered another first—the first performance here of the youthful Bolivian violinist Jaime Laredo as soloist with orchestra. His chosen work was the Mendelssohn concerto, though Munch seemed to have Wallingford Riegger's "Sonorities for Strings" on *his* mind. From the outset the sizable string section of the orchestra was encouraged to produce a torrent of sound where a trickle would have sufficed. Whether this drenching exposure disconcerted the young performer or not, it was not a good night for him, even as a virtuoso, for there was more than a passable quota of false intonation, and some scratchiness in his normally excellent tone. Interpretively it was neither springy, youthful Mendelssohn nor sober, mature Bartholdy, for while Laredo at nineteen is no longer a child, he is not yet musically a man. His is a basically sound violinistic ability and there is no reason to doubt that the total story would be quite different at another occasion, a year or so hence.

Second-rate concerts being a recent rule at the New York Philharmonic, mention of the latest is warranted largely by the descent of the artistic level two or three notches lower. For the occasion Stanislaw Skrowaczewski (a replacement for the late Dimitri Mitropoulos) provided a curious consommé of Chinese, Russian, and French ingredients. The first was a colorful but hardly exotic usage of the orchestra by China-born Chou, Wen-Chung entitled "And the Fallen Petals," in which the Western idiom and the Eastern poetic objectives never quite came together, for my taste; the second, a nonremarkable performance of the Khachaturian Cello Concerto by the young Singhalese virtuoso, Rohan de Saram; and finally the "Symphonie Fantastique" of Berlioz.

The most lasting impression was left by the American debut of the twenty-one-year-old de Saram, a tall, talented, appealingly musical personage. He has a sizable cello tone and good bowing mechanics for manipulating it. What he lacked, for Khachaturian, is perhaps a count in his credit—the flamboyance and superficiality to match its own. Boccherini or Haydn would probably have suited his quietly personal, warmly lyric style better.

The "Fantastique" told more, on the whole, about Skrowaczewski than it did about Berlioz. He has a generally clear conception of its outline and design, rather less penetration of its rampant sentiment and supercharged emotion. The conductor's inclinations seemed to be directed toward reining in the sentiment and underplaying the emotion—a procedure that conceivably could be good for valid results, if tension and control are not relaxed. Some of the sections, especially the "Ball" and "Scene in the Fields," tended to be pale rather than finely drawn, bland rather than discriminating.

As may sometimes happen, a recent spell of Metropolitan Opera was dominated by the adventures of one individual, in this case Mignon Dunn, who added to assignments in "Gioconda" and "Arabella" the unexpected opportunity to sing Marina in "Boris" for the first time. In vocal values, appearance, and delivery of the English text, she outperformed her recent predecessors in this part. A few days previously, Roberta Peters appeared for the first time this season to sing a Gilda in "Rigoletto" that suggested her recent vocal difficulties may, happily, be a thing of the past. Barry Morell was a promising Duke, Cornell MacNeil a rough-sounding but sizably dramatic Rigoletto.

—IRVING KOLODIN.

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BROADWAY POSTSCRIPT

Watch on the Rhinoceros

EUGENE IONESCO, in his latest farce, "The Rhinoceros," has written the simple fable of an ordinary man whose only virtue is an inability to be sufficiently taken in by the absurdities one must believe in order to become a well-adjusted member of society. It is not that this man, Berrenger, is too smart. Indeed, he would like very much to have friends, to marry a pretty girl, and to lead a purposeful existence. But try as he may, he simply cannot do it.

At the beginning of the play we meet Berrenger, somewhat unkempt and with a slight hangover. When his friend, John, takes him to task for his lack of self-discipline, Berrenger accepts his censure and resolves to become "cultured" in four weeks by means of adult education courses and avant-garde plays. Alas, before he can embark on this transformation of his personality, an extraordinary event occurs. A rhinoceros comes charging by in the streets. However, instead of becoming alarmed at this violent and inexplicable phenomenon, everyone reacts to it in some shallow way that is in effect a substitute for considering its true enormity. For instance, there is a heated argument about whether it is an Asian (one-horned), or an African (two-horned) species.

Equally absurd is the reaction to news of the rhinoceros by those who have not seen it. Each explains it away according to his own predispositions. Only Berrenger, perhaps because he lacks predispositions, is at a loss. Only Berrenger has so little security and so little status to lose that he is willing to admit he may be wrong.

Now begins an epidemic of metamorphoses of people into rhinoceroses. We watch in detail as Berrenger sees his friend John change gradually. John doesn't admit what is happening to him, but he accepts it subconsciously and justifies it by contending that Nature's jungle laws are better than man's sentimental morality. John's change is soon imitated by the majority of the populace, with the special irony that the "intellectuals" and the "Marxists" turn out to be capable of the quickest and most complete adaptation to "the times." At the end of the play we find Berrenger the last human being in a society of rhinoceroses. He too tries to change, but discovers that he is incapable of doing so. At the end he is sad because he must remain human in a dehumanized world, but we the audience can rejoice in his unalterable humanity.

In the American version, translated by Derek Prouse, director Joseph Anthony has bravely and intelligently sought to create a style of playing that will serve the ends of both art and farce. Thus, as Berrenger, Eli Wallach moves onstage in a dance of helplessness in order to present the essence of a man lost in a society to which he cannot conform. In the role of his seemingly better adjusted opposite, Berrenger's friend John, Zero Mostel offers us a brilliant burlesque of the character. While the latter is hilarious, it sometimes conveys less the self-deluded man Ionesco intended than a man with a superb ability to see through the foibles he is so neatly satirizing. Likewise, the other performers seem too consciously to be working at showing themselves up, and too little concerned with the state of emergency in which they find themselves. While to some extent this insufficient concern *is* the point of the play, it would have been better if we could have sensed the emergency through the strenuousness of their attempts to evade it. Furthermore, the self-conscious artificiality and farcical inventiveness are not always tied to the play's emotional needs, so that instead of being moved by the final act, we feel only that it has taken much too long merely to relate the fable's outcome.

While the judicious may yearn for another sort of presentation, "The Rhinoceros" still manages to emerge as fascinating, imaginative, and poetic. And if you can enjoy actors' pyrotechnics per se, this production is filled with fun and fireworks.

THE fable of another nonconformist, trapped by his own human decency, is told in "Epitaph for George Dillon." An Actors Playhouse cast revives it with sensitive performances, to make available again one of the best plays of recent years. —HENRY HEWES.

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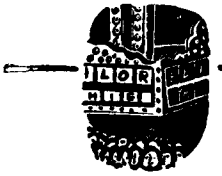


SR GOES TO THE MOVIES

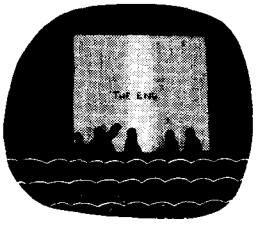
Girlhood in Flower

THE mordant Mexican director Luis Bunuel has turned his attention to the American South in **"The Young One,"** which has as its basis a Peter Matthiessen short story, "Travelin' Man." Just how this short story came into the hands of Bunuel, and how it was eventually made in Mexico with an American cast and an entirely Mexican technical crew, is one of those mysterious production processes that I find much too complex to unravel. The script, too, is a puzzling phenomenon, seemingly compounded by H. B. Addis and Bunuel out of almost equal portions of Erskine Caldwell and Tennessee Williams, with a distinct dash of "Lolita" tossed in. The young one of the title is an orphan girl of fourteen, left alone with the gamekeeper of an island game preserve off the South Carolina coast. Her grandpappy, a handyman on the island, dies, and the gamekeeper, a hard-bitten chap of forty, suddenly notices that the girl, young as she is, looks noticeably like a woman.

This situation immediately gives off intimations of carnality, and more are added when a Negro falsely accused as a rapist flees to the island, encounters the girl while the gamekeeper is visiting the mainland, and seeks her help. We now have two potential destroyers of the girl's innocence, and it is at this point that the movie takes off in two directions. Sure enough, the gamekeeper seduces the girl (statutory rape, I guess it would be called), while the Negro, a handsome chap, shows every respect for her innocence, even counseling her to cover herself more modestly when she emerges from an outdoor shower draped in a towel. But it suddenly becomes apparent, while the gamekeeper is attempting to hunt down the trespasser, that the story is really about racial prejudice, for when hunted and hunter appear face to face they begin trading epithets. The word "nigger" is used more frequently than in any movie that comes to my memory, and the Negro responds by calling his tormentor "white trash" almost as often.

Enter the Reverend Fleetwood, come to take the girl to an orphanage. He has been brought to the island by a fellow who runs a boat, and becoming aware of the seething drama taking place on the isolated island he deals with it as best he can, first baptizing the girl and then, using the kind of dialogue that went out of fashion in roughly 1910, convincing the gamekeeper that the Negro may indeed be innocent of the charge of rape, and that expiation for the seduction of the girl must be made. Somehow all of this is curiously unmoving, perhaps because the plot takes too many turns, perhaps because the message has such familiarity by now that, agree with it as we must, it merely seems to substitute one set of stereotypes for another.

Mr. Bunuel is adept at making Mexico look authentically like South Carolina, and actors such as Zachary Scott and Bernie Hamilton play their parts well. Most appealing of all is Kay Meersman, a rather full-blown nymphet, who seems to comprehend only mildly and dimly what is taking place because of her sudden blossoming into womanhood.



ACCORDING to MGM's **"Where the Boys Are,"** an annual migration of college boys swoops down on Fort Lauderdale during March, followed swiftly by a flock of college girls. In this movie (taken from a Glendon Swarthout yarn) four girls flee the snows at a Midwestern college, and trek for Fort Lauderdale in a convertible. Sure enough, the boys are there, and we then get involved with each girl in turn as she attempts to trap her temporary heart's desire. Joe Pasternak, the producer, has attempted to indicate the preoccupations of unchaperoned young people on holiday, and, as might be expected, the main one is sex. So it is young sex, both comical and serious, that is explored with enormous superficiality. To liven up the proceedings, which sag dreadfully every few minutes or so, a horribly nearsighted boy, Frank Gorshin, plays the kind of jazz that we can only pray will not become popular. Dolores Hart, Paula Prentiss, Yvette Mimieux, and Connie Francis are the girls; of these, keep an eye on Miss Prentiss, a tall gawk of a girl who has the look of a nubile Rosalind Russell, and the beginnings of a comic style. —HOLLIS ALPERT.

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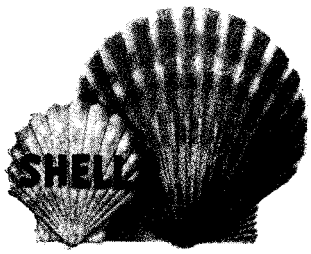

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There Will Be a Slight Delay

IT WAS seven A.M. in still-dark Manhattan when the alarm rang. A finger moved to flick it off, and an eye opened to appraise the day. A light snow was falling and the visibility was hardly more than a block, so the passenger reached for the phone and called the airline. He asked whether the plane would fly. Yes, it would, said the voice, as if planes always flew no matter what the weather. He asked whether it would leave on time and was told there had been no report of a delay. When he pressed harder for assurance the voice on the other end began to crackle with exasperation. If he wished he could call back before leaving the city for Idlewild.

At half past eight he phoned the airline again. The visibility was no better and it was still snowing. Would the plane indeed leave on time? Indeed it would, said the airline. Had there been a recent report from operations, the passenger asked. "That is all the information we have," came the annoyed voice. The passenger closed his suitcases, gathered his family, and drove the 15 miles from Manhattan to Idlewild Airport. The road traffic was creeping and the opposite lane coming in to New York from Long Island was bumper-to-bumper in the snow-swirling fog. It seemed impossible that they would all be deposited on schedule in Jamaica at half past one that same afternoon.

At Idlewild the passenger held his car while he checked the counter to see if the plane was still leaving on time. It was, the clerk stoutly maintained, so the baggage and the passengers were unloaded from the car, tickets presented, seats assigned. "We shall be loading at Gate 4 in twenty minutes," the counterman had said, and the words still resounded in his ear as he put his foot on the escalator for the ride to the waiting room. Then it began. A fifteen-minute delay was announced because of a crew change. In fifteen minutes it was lengthened to an hour because of a "reassignment of crews." When he asked what that meant, he was told that a delay on a plane coming from Europe had caused the crew change. Did that mean, he asked with widening eyes, that a crew that had flown over from Europe was now to make another flight to the West Indies? The answer he got was succinct if not very nourishing: "That is all the information we have, sir."

AT HOUR'S end there came another half-hour delay for de-icing the aircraft, which had been left out on the runway in the light-falling snow. The

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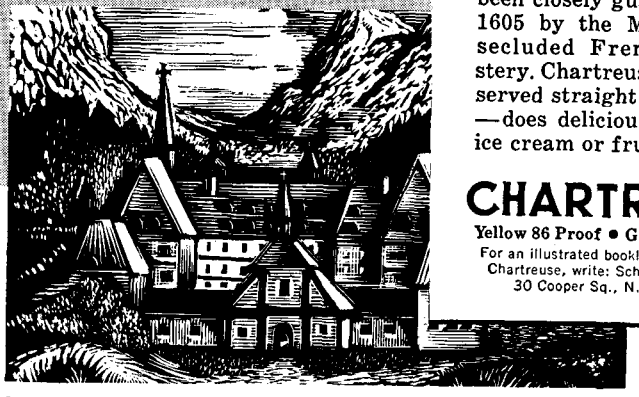

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passenger spent the time buying the morning papers, making some telephone calls to his office. He needed a haircut but was afraid he didn't have enough time. At noon the airline announced that it was having difficulty de-icing the aircraft on the field, so it was being moved to a hangar. Lunch would be served in the airport and the departure was now scheduled for two P.M. At the door of the airport restaurant, an airline official was busy dividing the passengers into tourist class and first class passengers. They would be seated at different tables. The passenger went back to the lounge and fell asleep on a bench. When he awoke it was half past one, and he was delighted with the realization that although he should rightfully have been arriving in the West Indies at this very moment, he had only another half an hour to wait at the airport in New York. He bought the afternoon papers, had a cup of coffee, and returned to the lounge to hear the next announcement. The plane had been de-iced in the hangar, but they were now having difficulty getting it back out on the runway because of the heavy traffic. Twenty minutes later the public address system spoke out for the faceless voice of the company. The traffic problem had cleared up, but the plane was now stuck in the snow. At that point the passenger went to the phone to call another line that was flying the next day. There were plenty of seats available and he went back to consult with the family. It was then, at last, that the clearance finally came, and the passengers were allowed to snake down the stairway, out onto the field, and into the plane. He clocked the departure at 3:07, which made it five hours and seven minutes late. The irony of it was that three hours and twelve minutes later he was in Jamaica, and after another painful fifty-four minutes spent in extricating himself from the toils of public health, customs, and immigration, he was at last free to travel to his hotel and go to bed.

FOR the passenger the pattern had been painfully familiar. During the year he had taken some two score flights, and all told he had lost nearly two whole days waiting for planes to take off. He had left forty minutes late for Moscow because the tractor towing the plane to the runway in New York had developed a dead battery. He had been stranded all day in Bora Bora until the connecting seaplane flew over from Tahiti to pick him up. He had waited 127 minutes in the highlands of Peru and he was late getting into Paris from Milan. He had been almost a whole day late in getting to Paris in

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the first place, with the delays chalked up on that one to (1) weather in New York, (2) a tower strike in Paris, and (3) a caterer's strike in Paris.

Once he sped up the California coast in time to meet his wife, only to find that her flight had been delayed almost a day in New York because of rain. Once he sat for ninety miserable minutes in the steaming plane on the apron at Nassau in eighty-degree heat, because it simply wasn't possible, as the airline's local manager explained to him, to turn around the New York plane loaded with over 100 passengers in forty-five minutes, as the airline was asking its ground crew to do. When he consulted his log at year's end he found there had been only three flights that had left close to on time. One was a Pan American jet leaving Honolulu, another was an American jet leaving Los Angeles, and the third was Pluna's Viscount from Buenos Aires to Montevideo. He felt, with that record, that the jet age had inherited the disease of its progenitor, the piston age, and that although in-flight times were stunning to contemplate, they were scarcely fast enough to compensate for the tedious delays. Moreover, he wondered why, if the jet was such a fragile bird that it froze in a light snow, it wasn't given more careful treatment. What was that Jamaica-bound jet doing out there on the runway anyway in a snowstorm? (When he asked that question an airline attendant told him that they had expected the snow to turn to rain.) He felt that the airlines, which are so dauntless in fighting the barriers of

customs delays and red tape which they decry as a deterrent to their business, might well recognize that flight delays that inconvenience the passenger are barriers too.

At year's end and New Year's beginning, he felt it might be the proper time to state that speed and bountiful meals are not the whole answer to superior airline service. Most unpleasant and most culpable of all, he thought, were the airline clerks who dispense

departure and arrival information. Where, he wondered, as he had for so many years, was the breakdown in communications between operations and passenger service? Why do the clerks habitually dispense incorrect arrival and departure information?

WHAT had happened to cabin service? When it came to traveling with an infant on U. S. flag-carriers he found stewardesses unwilling to put bottles of formula on ice. (But there was plenty of ice for the martinis.) One carrier no longer has provisions for carrying cribs on its new jets. (Another had the hooks installed but no cribs had been placed aboard.) A third airline had built a magnificent multimillion-dollar terminal but had forgotten to install a nursery.

He found stewardesses busying themselves in flight by knitting socks for their boyfriends. One thumbed through a fashion magazine while three families with their broods of children were busily unloading their small fry and equipment. It took half a dozen trips between plane and terminal. She never looked up. One U. S. line with a nine A.M. departure left fifteen minutes late, but by a quarter to ten the steward and the hostesses were up the aisles with martinis and highballs. Coffee was a difficult item to obtain and anyone who thought the hour too early for liquor was required to wait until bar service was over before coffee could be served. Once he looked on as a stewardess told a man, who was holding an infant, to attach his safety belt. Rough weather was coming up. He said he couldn't manage it with the child. Her answer: "I'm sorry, sir, it is an FAA regulation."

Anybody here remember the days when the passenger came first?

—HORACE SUTTON.

LITERARY I.Q. ANSWERS

Column Two should read: 7, 6, 1, 4, 10, 9, 5, 3, 8, 2. Column Three should read: 6, 7, 9, 4, 10, 1, 2, 6, 8, 5.

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The Labor Force

Continued from page 36

ques of service, Soviet planners would have to reconcile themselves to a considerable expansion in the size of the labor force allocated to the construction and operation of wholesale and retail trade facilities.

Nor is this the only area in which the rising standards in the outside world are pressing against Soviet reality. One of the more conspicuous changes in labor relations now under way in the Soviet Union involves the length of the work week. A steady process of reduction began four years ago, when the wartime forty-eight-hour week was shortened by two hours. By the end of 1960, the second phase is expected to come to an end, with all wage-earners working a seven-hour day and a forty-one-hour week. Another hour is scheduled to come off by 1962. Thereafter, beginning in 1964, the government has promised another reduction in the work week, this time to thirty-five hours, which is forecast to be the "shortest work week in the world."

The work week of the Soviet factory worker is scheduled to be some 20 per cent shorter at the end of the seven-year plan period than at its beginning This measure is generally recognized as the most appealing concession to welfare now being made by the regime. At the same time, it also has its strong attractions to the authorities since it provides a basis for overhauling the present system of "outdated" work norms. The present plant-by-plant review of their preparation for the seven-hour day, as we learned during our interviews, is concerned chiefly with an upward revision of the work norms wherever possible. The expected result is a substantial rise in labor productivity.

But this reform, too, has its negative side from the standpoint of the planners. For the immediate future, the drastic cut in hours could strain still further the labor supply required by the state economy as a whole. The state economy, including industry, must increase its entire labor force during the current seven-year plan by some 22 per cent. Yet the planned reduction in hours will be so steep as to cancel out the effect of almost the entire block of added labor. Hence the bulk of the planned 80 per cent increase in the product of industry by 1965 will have to come by way of higher labor productivity. Some Soviet writers have, in fact, estimated that the increase in productivity during the seven-year period in the industries enjoying the reduced work week will have to average around 9 per cent per year, a figure that is distinctly on the ambitious side. It is important to recall that over the past seven years the annual growth rate in labor productivity in Soviet industry has been officially reported at 7.3 per cent. What is more, it has been moving fairly steadily downward.

Another example of the slow progress in achieving a palpable improvement in the long-neglected area of welfare is the case of housing. The need for decent standards in dwelling space is urgent. Accordingly, the scale of investment has been enlarged. It will be larger during the current plan by 80-83 per cent, as compared to the previous seven-year period. This is an increase equal to that planned for the construction of productive facilities, a fact that is by itself unique in Soviet planning practice. But the results are not expected to remove the heavy layer of austerity in this aspect of everyday life in the Soviet Union.

Let us look at the target in housing through the eyes of the venerable Soviet economist Nemchikov. As he sees it, 55 per cent of all the additions in urban housing to be made by 1965 will be "swallowed up" by the growth in city population. At best, he reasons, the net added new housing will raise the average amount of dwelling space to eight meters (roughly eighty square feet) per city inhabitant. This will leave the situation, five years hence, still below the official "minimum sanitary requirement" of nine square meters per person established by the Soviet government some three decades ago.

WE must remember, however, that the managers of the Soviet economy are not engaged in a race to match the consumption standards of the West. This is surely not at the heart of the official economic program, although it may weigh heavily in its verbal justification. What attracts the Soviet leaders of the competition against the West are the opportunities for undermining the power position of these nations around the world. For this purpose, they have a number of potent weapons in their arsenal. Not the least of these in their unique achievement in splitting the organic process of economic growth in such a way as to amass in record time enough military and foreign policy capabilities to be used as an instrument of intimidation against the West. At the same time, their drained, retarded consumer sector may be plausibly represented to the underdeveloped nations as an acceptable price to pay for a rapid expansion in basic productive capacity.

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THE FINE ARTS

The Unhappy Marriage of Art and TV

THERE IS little doubt that radio has increased and improved music audiences in America. One questions whether television has done as much for art. Since its earliest days, art educators and museum directors have prophesied that TV would revolutionize public response to the fine arts, that through mass exposure art could become a household experience. Unfortunately, this has not been the case. Large audiences rarely watch art programs. Several reasons—some unavoidable, some the result of unimaginative planning—are responsible.

Unavoidable causes lie chiefly in the nature of television, in physical limitations that as yet do not permit faithful reproduction of such intangibles as color, texture, tone, and light. Almost invariably a painting or drawing is distorted, blurred, diminished in the process of transmission. Since great works usually depend on the most subtle interrelationships, their entire meaning can be lost if even slight mechanical aberrations intrude. Immediately a common-sense solution suggests itself: to select for TV only those works that are visually sturdy enough to withstand the medium's restrictions. For example, smashing black and white compositions by Franz Kline, Rouault, or Orozco are apt to come through better than fragile paintings by, let's say, Watteau or Mark Tobey, whose works usually depend on delicate line and fleeting mutations of color. In planning an art program for television, one must be as realistic as a choreographer handicapped by a small stage or an architect working with a limited budget. What can't be done, simply can't be done.

Details sometimes reproduce better on TV than an entire painting, for the rectangular dimensions of a canvas can inadvertently seem rounded, bent, or cropped on a television screen, thus seriously damaging the composition. Where details are concerned, however, the camera is free to act more deliberately, to move as it picks and chooses those areas that reproduce even when greatly enlarged. Sculpture, too, is often a more sympathetic subject, for here the camera can travel around three-dimensional forms, revealing numerous facets in changing light.

Television's real failure as an art medium results from its inability to evoke the necessary emotional responses that accompany almost any authentic art experience. This shiny, slightly fluctuating, light-struck surface does irreparable damage to those muted harmonies and elusive relationships that often touch our deepest emotions. The same, in lesser degree, is true of motion pictures and color reproductions, though here problems of immediacy are less challenging.

IF we grant that the experience of seeing works of art on television is unavoidably limited, what then is TV's future in this field? I, for one, suspect that it could become a superb educational aid were new and creative visual techniques developed. So far there has been painfully little experimentation to this end. Even now, as in the past, the spoken word is often apt to overshadow the works shown. What painting can hope to compete with an earnest lecturer pouring out esthetic judgments and historical data, as he not infrequently stands directly in front of the work in question? Too often the face of the speaker becomes more prominent than the art he discusses. Methods borrowed from the static lecture platform are obviously inadequate for so volatile a medium as television. Another borrowed method, though less sterile, merely transfers already existent art films to the television screen where refinements, possible in motion pictures, are often totally lost. No less frustrating are the frequent round-table discussions featuring too much talk and too little art, quiz programs more illuminating for the participants than the audience, and dramatizations of artists' lives, though these last are sometimes effective if only because they focus on a subject at once romantic and revealing in a nonstatic setting.

But none of these methods seems particularly well adapted to the fine arts. Even live broadcasts of special events at museums and exhibitions are apt to turn more into news and social stories than art programs. And such live shows can be prodigiously expensive. One type of potentially successful program stems from interviews with artists in their studios. Here at least we see the man and his work, listen to his views, and learn something tangible about him from his own surroundings. Only television, among all the many forms of mass communication, can combine these multiple experiences spontaneously. Less interesting are the numerous "how-to-do-it" shows that tend to oversimplify creative processes and reduce them to mere routine.

But surely there are other techniques. I've always wondered why programs explaining art solely in terms of art have not been developed. Avoiding historical references and critical evaluations, such programs could be both economical and informative as they focused on specific objects and their details to explain general ideas. For example, I visualize a program investigating the question "How real is realism?" Here terse, nontechnical statements or, even better, questions from an unseen commentator could pinpoint various art objects so provocatively juxtaposed as to deny the usual pat and final answers. Moreover, controversial questions make for that much-needed ingredient —audience participation. We are apt to look more perceptively at works of art if, while doing so, we are confronted with such questions as: Which is more realistic—a sculpture suggesting a running horse or an abstract mobile that really moves? Which is more realistic—a meticulous painting that simulates the textures of silk and wood or a picture with heavy pigment that candidly admits its real brush strokes? Which is more realistic—the sculpture that simulates flesh or the sculpture that frankly looks like stone?

BY this comparative method we are shown rather than told. Until television develops more reliable reproductive processes, educational art programs are likely to be more rewarding than those that try to approximate the inimitable experience of looking at original works. But this does not mean that art shows need be dull, verbose, pompous, or routine. They can provide clues to future looking and attempt to solve puzzling problems. How many of us would like to know "why artists transform nature," or "how American is American art"? Simple questions like these are effective grist for television and can be answered with few words and with works of art themselves acting as the only prima donnas in the show.

—KATHARINE KUH.

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Amour on the Thames

By Granville Hicks

ELIZABETH TAYLOR is a quiet English novelist, very quiet and very English. Unlike Ivy Compton-Burnett, she takes account of the changes that are going on in England, but she does not make these changes her subjects, as, in their different ways, C. P. Snow and Anthony Powell do. In her new novel, **"In a Summer Season"** (Viking, $3.95), there is a cook, Mrs. Meacock, who has been around the world, who has been corrupted by American cooking habits, and who is compiling a collection of profound thoughts, but somehow she remains as unmistakably British as the house in which she is employed.

Elizabeth Taylor.

The novel is laid in the Thames valley within sight of Windsor Castle. It is a charming scene that Miss Taylor paints, bathed in the light of "the best summer for two hundred years," and the tone in which she tells her story is gentle and subdued. Yet this is profoundly a novel about passion.

The central situation is one that has often been treated in fiction. Kate Heron, after losing her first husband, has married a man ten years younger than she. She is intensely in love with Dermot, and he with her, and differences in age, taste, and temperament at first seem unimportant. But Dermot is irresponsible and self-indulgent and in general not well adapted to matrimony, and Kate's Aunt Ethel is not the only one to foresee trouble.

It is a complicated household over which Kate presides. She has two children by her first husband: Tom, who is twenty-two and who works for his paternal grandfather, and Louisa, who is nineteen and a student at boarding school. "There were three distinct generations in the house," Kate reflects: "her Aunt Ethel's, then her own, and her children's. Between hers and Tom's and Lou's, on the mezzanine floor, as it were, was Dermot's."

Miss Taylor ingeniously explores the possibilities, comic and otherwise, of this situation. Louisa, home for the holidays, is nursing a grand and of course hopeless passion for an ineffectual young curate, Father Blizzard, whose most casual words haunt her dreams. Tom is courting his girls and struggling to endure his irascible grandfather. Aunt Ethel writes darkly analytical letters to a friend about the state of Kate's marriage. Dermot tries to cope with his lively mother, who is seeking to involve him in some sort of business activity.

The first part of the novel is lighthearted and often funny, but then Miss Taylor modulates into a different key. The Thorntons, Charles and Dorothea, were neighbors and close friends of Kate and her first husband, Alan, but Alan died, and then Dorothea, and Kate remarried, and Charles went abroad with his daughter, Araminta. Now Charles and Araminta return—the old Charles and a new Araminta, a young woman daring in dress and bold in speech. Tom is devastated, and Dermot is shaken.

Aunt Ethel continues her observations:

> The mistake she made [she writes her friend] was to lose sight of the woman she really is. A typically *English* woman, I should say—young for her age, rather inhibited (heretofore), too satirical, with one half of her mind held back always to observe and pass judgment. . . . Love, for her, should begin in the *mind* first. I remember her courtship with Alan, a different matter indeed—the evenings at Queen's Hall (the dear old place!) and the long hikes, as people used to call a country walk, and the books going to and from with passages underlined.

This is part of the truth, and an important part, but Miss Taylor makes us understand, as Aunt Ethel cannot, the depth of Kate's passion for her young husband.

THE situation develops rapidly. Tom is bewitched by Araminta, who is now so blissfully permissive and now so tantalizingly aloof. Louisa comes home from school again, to find that Father Blizzard has decided to become a Roman Catholic and enter a monastery, and what was once an amusing schoolgirl crush is touched with pathos. "'Look thy last on all things lovely'—a line she had hitherto delighted in with the delicious sadness possible only to the young now struck her with its true brutality; it invoked desperate images—a man glancing up at the sky on his way to the gallows, or herself soon to take leave of Father Blizzard."

As for Kate and Dermot, their relationship, which was bound to deteriorate in any case, is affected by the return of Charles Thornton. Dermot, seeing clearly how different he is from Kate's first husband, draws away from Kate. He takes a job and then conceals the fact that he has lost it. Drinking too much, he speaks coarsely to Kate, and for the first time there is an acknowledged breach. Obviously some sort of crisis is at hand, and what the reader wonders, seeing that only a few pages are left, is how in the world Miss Taylor is going to handle it.

IT is a mark of her skill that she handles it in the simplest and most direct fashion imaginable. A lesser novelist would not have dared to do what she has, but Miss Taylor carries it off. We know enough about both Dermot and Araminta to feel that the disaster is plausible, but that isn't really the point; it is the author's ability to create exactly the right tone that wins the reader's belief.

Elizabeth Taylor has been compared to Jane Austen, and perhaps there is no one else with whom she can be compared. In a time when most novelists are concerned with describing a world they reject, she portrays a world she accepts. The setting of her novel is drawn with great affection, and she manifestly admires the way Kate Heron lives—her money, her leisure, her culture. But she is no more complacent than Jane Austen, and if she shows us a way of life that pleases her, it is in order to concentrate on the torments and frustrations of love. If Kate feels with Dermot an ecstasy she had never known with her first husband, she has to live with uncertainty. Tom, too, experiencing love for the first time, discovers its precariousness. And poor, ludicrous Louisa's sufferings are just as real as those of her elders.

Miss Taylor, like certain other women writers, has a remarkable ability to communicate emotional states in all their power and complexity. As I began by saying, she is a quiet writer, but it would be a mistake to suppose that she is a weak one. She is, on the contrary, extraordinarily tenacious in her pursuit of precision, and what might seem to be merely a neat little epigram turns out to have the exactness of a mathematical formula. Like Jane Austen and like Henry James, whom she also admires, she sacrifices breadth for depth and gets the best of the bargain.

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Prescription for Peace

"In Place of Folly," by Norman Cousins *(Harper. 208 pp. $3), urges world-wide disarmament enforced by a vastly strengthened United Nations as the only way to insure man's survival. Joseph S. Clark is United States Senator from Pennsylvania.*

By Joseph S. Clark

NORMAN COUSINS was one of the first Americans to understand that the development of nuclear weapons required, as the price of continuing civilization, some form of world government. Shortly after Hiroshima in 1945, he wrote "Modern Man Is Obsolete," anticipating most of the problems of survival that still confront us.

For the next eight years he spoke, traveled, and wrote tirelessly in an effort to awaken the world in general and America in particular to the deadly peril in which we live; and the need to do something about it.

Then came "Who Speaks for Man?" in 1953—the year before the Russians got the hydrogen bomb. In that book he supported with irrefutable logic the thesis that "war is an invention of the human mind. The human mind can invent peace with justice."

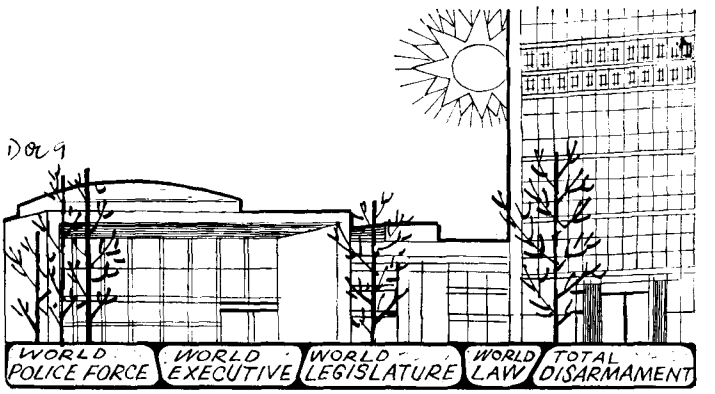
For the next eight years he elaborated the need for establishing, through the United Nations, enforceable world law coupled with total and permanent national disarmament.

Now comes "In Place of Folly," his most cogent presentation of a case that thinking men everywhere are beginning to understand cannot be effectively answered.

For 100 closely reasoned pages Mr. Cousins deals with the dangers of uncontrolled nuclear weapons, of chemical, biological, and radiological warfare. He states, and then demolishes, the case for the military. He establishes the feasibility, indeed the necessity, of ending nuclear testing. He exposes the folly of power without control and the fallacy of the deterrent as a reliable means of keeping the peace. The defense in warfare, he points out, has collapsed; only disarmament under world law can prevent destruction.

For the next fifty-four pages he argues the case for a strengthened United Nations equipped with the tools necessary to keep the peace: (1) a system of world law, (2) enforced through a world court by a world police force, (3) administered by a world executive of definite, but limited power, (4) controlled by a legislature elected directly by the people of the member countries with votes weighted roughly in proportion to population and economic power, and (5) accompanied by total disarmament.

In this section he draws heavily on the monumental work of Grenville Clark and Louis B. Sohn "World Peace Through World Law," which has become the recognized source for everyone seriously interested in doing something to eliminate international anarchy.



On the difficult problem of obtaining Russian adherence to such a scheme he argues that "if the Soviet Union is basically motivated by considerations of security, then only a world organization with adequate powers to underwrite the common safety and the independence of all nations will be able to provide such security." China, he does not deal with.

The rest of the book is an eloquent plea to individual men everywhere to renounce the habit of violence, to appreciate the power of the individual to obtain acceptance of his own views, to recognize that first things must come first, that this is an exciting time to be alive, and that the enemies of survival are those timid men in government and elsewhere who either will not or cannot understand the necessity of breaking away from conventional patterns of thought and action.

Mr. Cousins is a humanist. But he appears to have mastered both the technical scientific knowledge and the principles of social science necessary to a complete understanding of his subject.

The case he makes seems to this reviewer to be unanswerable. There remains the question: what can be done to implement his conclusions? It is here that frustration sets in.

The lag in our democracy between the establishment of a consensus of informed opinion and the enactment of action programs is truly frightening. Mr. Cousins complains with good reason of the failure of men in public life to stand up and be counted for peace through enforceable world law. Yet in the last election several "peace Congressmen," notably Porter of Oregon, Johnson of Colorado, and Meyer of Vermont, were defeated, in their opinion, largely because of their forthright support of some kind of supranational authority to keep the peace. A recent survey of high school seniors in a rural Pennsylvania community revealed unanimous opposition to any form of "world government." In the 86th Congress twenty-six Senators co-sponsored a concurrent resolution urging high level studies in the State Department to develop plans for a revision of the Charter of the United Nations looking towards the establishment of world peace through enforceable world law. The resolution was opposed by the Eisenhower Administration. No hearings could be arranged. Repeal of the iniquitous Connally amendment, the shortest of all steps towards encouraging world law, could not even get a favorable vote in the Senate Foreign Relations Committee; and, if it had, defeat on the floor seemed certain.

This country is not ready for the almost revolutionary steps necessary. The question is how to get it ready—quickly—before it is too late.

The answer is simple: Presidential leadership supported at every civic, governmental, and individual level. If President-elect Kennedy, Vice President-elect Johnson aided and abetted by Dean Rusk, Chester Bowles, Adlai E. Stevenson, Paul H. Nitze, William Fulbright, chairman of the Senate Com-

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mittee on Foreign Relations, and Dr. Thomas Morgan, chairman of the House Foreign Affairs Committee, should all decide the time for aggressive action for peace had arrived, this country could be moved off dead center. The present debate among intellectuals outside the seats of power would become a vital exchange between those with power to act.

This may come; and sooner than many think. As was developed in the December 10, 1960, issue of the *Saturday Review*, the Kennedy Administration will rely on highly competent scientific advice committed to finding ways to disarm.

But this would be only the first step. As Mr. Cousins points out, there would remain our allies, the "uncommitted nations," Russia and, most difficult of all, Communist China, to satisfy. Even then it would be necessary to resolve hundreds of difficult questions inherent in creating a structured peace for the entire human community.

Mr. Cousins argues: "A consensus in favor of a governed world is not going to take place overnight. But everything begins with advocacy and debate. Just in the process of arguing the great ideas, a new constant for the human situation begins to emerge."

"In Place of Folly" does its full share in seeking to establish the needed consensus here and abroad.

Rockets and Red Tape

"Countdown for Decision," by Major General John B. Medaris, with Arthur Gordon *(Putnam's. 303 pp. $5), explores the tangle of scientific, military, and organizational problems involved in America's missile development. An authority on military affairs, Walter Millis has written "Arms and Men" and several studies of World War II.*

By Walter Millis

I DO not know whether Major General John B. Medaris (U.S. Army, ret.) is or was always right in his crisply critical views of the American missile effort; but he is always fascinatingly interesting and informative in his account of it. No doubt there are other sides to the complex story; but there is unlikely to be successful challenge of the general picture he draws of the indecisions, the delays, the waste of money and effort, the ferocious infighting among not only the bureaus but the giant industrial interests, the political follies that have characterized our democracy's ponderous efforts to deal with these most pressing problems of the technological age.

Medaris came up through Army Ordnance, and for four years (from its activation in early 1956 to its effective emasculation in early 1960) was commanding general of the Army Ballistic Missile Agency at Huntsville, Alabama, where Wernher von Braun and his team of ex-German missile men worked on the design, testing, and production of long-range and space rockets. While these and associated scientists (like those at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory at Cal Tech) labored with the technology, Medaris labored with the politics and logistics, fighting to get the appropriations, to prevent their projects from being snatched by raiding agencies, to extort from higher echelons the decisions without which nothing could be done. In telling all this he and Mr. Gordon have worked out a clear, straightforward style, nonpolemical in manner, which provides the layman with a good deal of information about rockets and their appalling design problems. They have also illuminated the workings of the government.

Medaris's first problem was the Air Force, which demanded complete control over all long-range space missiles without, in Medaris's opinion, having the technical organization competent to exercise it. Army Ordnance had long experience with its "arsenal system," in which qualified uniformed officers were available to support and direct the technicians in research and development and contract with industry for production. "The lack" in the Air Force, he observes, of a similar "sound, experienced military-technical organization has been responsible for the technical side of that service becoming almost a slave of the aircraft and associated industries, subject to endless pressure and propaganda." The Army did not have to use a private-profit research organization, like the Air Force's former Ramo-Wooldridge; it was freer than the Air Force to go to the automotive rather than the aviation industry, where more experience of the kind needed in missilery might be available. Medaris temperately observes that he cannot blame the airframe companies for the pressure they exerted. Expanded to meet the enormous wartime demand for military aircraft, the missile business offered them the only escape from the certainly decreasing importance of the aircraft. "We had saddled ourselves with a captive industry and it could not be waved away without painful results." But its preservation led to heavy costs and mistakes.

John B. Medaris — "crisply critical views of the American missile effort."

MEDARIS believes that the arsenal system, with the von Braun "team," was superior to the Air Force contract system in economy and efficiency; and since it produced the first practicable long-range missile, lofted the first American satellite, and is far ahead with the first big booster for space work, the record seems to bear him out. But it was not only the Air Force and the airframe companies that wanted to get the Army out of the big missile business. There was the pressure against "duplication." There was the pressure to make the space work seem (not always honestly) a civilian operation. One gets the impression at times that Medaris was fighting as fiercely to preserve the Army's own empire in the field as he was to secure the best interests of the nation. His bitterness leads him to suggest that there was a deliberate conspiracy first to starve the Army out of the missile field and then to carry on the same work in other hands.

But his third and greatest problem was the vast and ponderous policy-and-decision-making organization, its inability to make decisions and its want of any rational, guiding military policy as a base for its endlessly intricate operations. Because the Joint Chiefs have never been able to agree upon basic military policy, they have tended to abdicate their decision-making respon-

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sibility to the civilian heads, and the civilian heads, because they are usually short-term appointees, uninformed to begin with and too busy to learn for themselves, tend to farm out their own decisions for endless "staffing" and "re-staffing" by professional civil servants and budget officers. To Medaris the problem is not how to secure civilian control of the military but how to re-establish some military authority over the civilians. For every responsible military executive officer there is now a civilian superior in almost one-to-one correspondence, checking and reviewing his activities, with no real point at which final decision can be taken until one reaches the President.

General Medaris's recommendations are drastic; his first—"an absolute minimum"—being to recombine the Army and the Air Force. He would proceed by establishing a single Chief of Staff, by reducing the civil service staff of the Department of Defense by nine-tenths and the appointed assistant and deputy secretaries by one-half. He has other ideas on reorganization and some terse thoughts on the kind of military policy that he believes should emerge from an improvement of the decision-making process. But when he sums these up by saying that we should first identify and evaluate all threats to our national security, military and nonmilitary, and then "make sure that our military policy is capable of meeting all such threats and yet will not be applied in such a way as to create more havoc than we can possibly cure afterward," he seems to me to be entering a very large order indeed—indeed, an unfillable one until the military problem can be thought through even farther than a Medaris has done.

FRASER YOUNG'S

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The safest way to double your money is to fold it over once and put it in your pocket.

—Kin Hubbard.

FICTION

From a Social Nether World

***"Eight Men," by Richard Wright** (World. 250 pp. $3.95), portrays the Negro rebelling against the humiliation and injustice of intolerant whites. W. G. Rogers is an author and Associated Press critic.*

By W. G. Rogers

Richard Wright—"gives fresh and welcome proof of a creative perspective."

THE NEGRO who kills a man, and the Negro who kills a woman, the Negro who is wounded, who is sentenced to death, who is murdered—these starkly doomed figures have peopled Wright's fiction in the past, and they appear again in this short-story collection.

One of Mississippi's most distinguished sons—whatever Mississippians may think—Wright once declared in an essay on the literature of his handicapped and victimized blood brothers: "The Negro had no choice in his subject matter; he could not select his own experiences." Wright couldn't, either. It is another way of saying that for him there was only Bigger Thomas, from "Native Son"; only Fishbelly, from "The Long Dream," and only Richard Wright in person from "Black Boy." If this made him great, didn't it also prevent his being greater?

Only one of the "Eight Men" shows Wright at his realistic, bludgeoning, blunt best: "The Man Who Went to Chicago." First called "Early Days in Chicago," it is autobiography. The poverty-stricken narrator runs through a succession of the menial jobs reserved by whites, as this author correctly charges, for blacks: porter in a Jewish delicatessen, dishwasher, agent for a burial society, temporary clerk, and orderly in a medical research institute where with other Negroes he watches over dumb animals on which experiments are being conducted. His story drives on to the inevitable denunciation:

> The hospital kept us four Negroes as though we were close kin to the animals we tended . . . separated by a vast psychological distance from the significant processes of the rest of the hospital—just as America had kept us locked in the dark underworld of American life for three hundred years.

These words on the very last page of the book climax not only the one story, and not only the entire collection, but Wright's entire work, for this his latest book is probably also his last. Yet more detachment, or mellowness, is scattered through these pages than the unforgiving Wright usually permitted himself. He can turn out a labored and confused parable; he can tell all over again, needlessly, what he has already told twice in just one book, "The Long Dream," about the Negro incited viciously by the depraved white woman; you are less apt to weep for the hero than go gunning for the villain; and there are few subtleties. But just the same he often gives fresh and welcome proof, even if it comes late, of a creative perspective; now at last the white chip is not always on the colored shoulder; personal tensions relax. This testifies to some increasing concern for artistry—the artistry which he had occasionally neglected because of his passionate involvement in the plight of his people. He personified magnificently the Negro rebelling at social debasement.

Born in 1908, Wright died in Paris last November. "Uncle Tom's Children" appeared in 1938; in 1939 he got a Guggenheim, won the Spingarn medal, and published "Native Son." "Black Boy," in 1945, was his last book written in this country. For some fifteen years he and his white wife lived abroad, and enjoyed in Paris the tolerance shamefully denied here.

Almost every worthy writer is a minority, and almost all minorities are

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persecuted in some fashion—if only by intolerant critics. But Wright was persecuted in his very flesh, and overwhelmed with indignities, not imagined but atrociously and unendurably real. There are not many men to whom life has been so unfair. Yet by its pitiless maltreatment it forced out of him a dozen good books. He hated the intolerance of white America, though without it he would not have become the particular writer he was; and it's true that stories done in Paris where he felt he was loved lost some of the edge and the impact of those written in America where he felt he was scorned. What did improve in the later years was the nonfiction, like the savage diatribe, "White Man, Listen!" Paris had found him increasingly bitter, as the newspaper *Le Monde* noted in an obituary; a handsome man with broad brow and sensitive lips, his hair only slightly gray, the key to him lay in the eyes that flashed with more anger than ever.

The work of younger Negro writers puzzled him a little; in Gwendolyn Brooks, Ann Petry, Chester Himes, and Ralph Ellison, among others, he complained of a lack of lyricism—curious criticism from the least lyric of writers. But he was the pathfinder of his generation, and if his successors no longer feel, with Fishbelly's father, that "to live in this world's to be in danger" in a particular and special sense for them, they still are aware, with Wright, that the word Negro in our country "means something not racial or biological, but something purely social, something made in the United States." In them, too, we discover, and we salute, the spirit of revolt, and the same anguished yearning for the full human freedoms, which were not, ultimately, inalienable.

It will be presumptuous of white America to take pride in Wright, but it will do so just the same.

—From "Men and Angels."

THE TRUE CHARITY: "Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal." So reflected young Luke Baber, as he set forth upon the search for the charitable understanding which had never existed between his father and himself.

Luke—like Robin White, the author of **"Men and Angels"** (Harper, $3.95)—was born in South India, the son of missionary parents. At sixteen, following the death of his mother, he was brought to America, where he finished school, made a success in the business world, and reacted with equanimity to the report of his father's death in India. Their relationship had, after all, been cold, formal, and completely devoid of real communication.

But this snug if not very happy adjustment to life was shattered when Luke received a letter from India saying that his father was not dead but had disappeared into the back-and-beyond of Indian village life. The search for Luke's father, both symbolically and in actuality, is the story Mr. White has to tell.

As the author moves his narrator to India, sets him up with a delightful Indian family (complete with beautiful daughter), and puts the search into motion, the book develops all the elements of a good suspense novel. Gradually the tangled threads of the past begin to unravel. The missionary had left the mission, taken on Indian clothing, disappeared for awhile, turned up in a hospital with horribly wounded hands, and disappeared again—but where? In a real situation, aided by Indian gossip, any diligent searcher might have found out ten minutes after arriving in India. But book plots being what they are, it takes Luke several months to discover the truth.

And by the time he does it doesn't matter much anyway, for Luke has found the answer to the other and far more important search: the nature of his father and of himself. "When had I ever gone to him and said, 'Help me, I am afraid? Love me because I have no one? Don't turn from me because I need you?' Instead I had concealed my weakness from him, and he from me, and we had mistaken the externals for signs of malicious inward strength." To be willing to ask for help is, Mr. White suggests, the true charity.

Mr. White is the author of two previous books, "House of Many Rooms" and "Elephant Hill," the 1959 Harper Prize Novel. Like the others, "Men and Angels" contains brilliantly described Indian scenes and characterizations that are almost enough—if not quite—to redeem the novel from the fatal flaw of a basically cold, lazy, and unlikable narrator. He may be saved in his own eyes, but to the reader the sounding brass remains.

—MARGARET PARTON.

Your Literary I. Q.

Conducted by John T. Winterich

"BY ANY OTHER NAME"

Second thoughts are usually best, and second choices usually make better book titles, witness these examples supplied by Herman E. Krimmel of Cleveland Heights, Ohio. Column One lists original ideas, Column Two definitive labels, and Column Three the authors' names. Key Columns Two and Three on Column One. Things are sorted out on page 59.

1.	"The Defeated"	( )	"Bad Girl"	( )	Roark Bradford
2.	"Edward Caskodan"	( )	"Giants in the Earth"	( )	Viña Delmar
3.	"The First Book of Ethiopus"	( )	"The Island Within"	( )	Nathaniel Hawthorne
4.	"Hunger People"	( )	"Laughing Boy"	( )	Oliver La Farge
5.	"In the Night"	( )	"Main Street"	( )	Sinclair Lewis
6.	"In Those Days"	( )	"The Marble Faun"	( )	Ludwig Lewisohn
7.	"Nine Lunar Months"	( )	"Nocturne"	( )	Charles Major
8.	"The Sea Cook"	( )	"Ol' Man Adam an' His Chillun"	( )	E. H. Rolvaag
9.	"Transformation"	( )	"Treasure Island"	( )	Robert Louis Stevenson
10.	"The Village Virus"	( )	"When Knighthood Was in Flower"	( )	Frank Swinnerton

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Investment for Universal Gain

"The Diplomacy of Economic Development," by Eugene R. Black *(Harvard University Press. 71 pp. $3), and* ***"The Attack on World Poverty," by Andrew Schonfield*** *(Random House. 246 pp. $5), champion a number of unorthodox ideas about aid to lagging nations. William Diebold, Jr., is director of economic studies of the Council on Foreign Relations.*

By William Diebold, Jr.

WHEN Eugene Black became its president eleven years ago the International Bank for Reconstruction and development had not yet resolved its basic dilemma. It had to find ways of effectively tapping the wealth of Wall Street and other private financial markets for funds that could be used profitably to finance economic development that private investors would not undertake on their own. There was no real doubt in 1949 that Black, who came of a banking family in Georgia and had spent many years at the Chase Bank in New York, was well equipped to satisfy the investors.

He has proved equal to the rest of the task as well. Under his guidance the World Bank has established a fairly clear-cut position for itself in the financing of development and has had an influence going beyond that of its loans. As a dividend, so to speak, Mr. Black has played an important part in the delicate diplomacy of the Suez crisis, the Anglo-Iranian oil trouble, and the Indus waters dispute between India and Pakistan. His banking, too, has been diplomatic. People in many underdeveloped countries, Andrew Shonfield reports, regard the Bank as having a "genuine sympathy and understanding for their problems," which, since they have had requests for loans turned down, "is a sufficiently notable circumstance."

Mr. Black's excellent book—the William L. Clayton lectures at the Fletcher School—is not a discussion of the Bank's policy but a set of reflections on the philosophy of development and the means of achieving it. His main contention is that there should be a clear place in the world for what he calls development diplomacy: "how to secure advantages in terms of development without arousing too much hostility." This modest definition covers a view of development that is nuanced and sophisticated. It does not fit the simple journalistic, academic, or business stereotypes that have so much currency. Mr. Black's picture is not one of millions who clamor for development above everything else. He speaks instead of "an age of enlightenment" in which a minority in the underdeveloped countries bears the burdens and risks of bringing change. These leaders face more difficult choices than their Western predecessors ever had as they "try to leap over the many contradictions in the economic development process, to try to settle once and for all the inevitable conflicts between growth and justice, growth and equality, growth and national power and prestige."

The job of Mr. Black's development diplomat is not to tell the leaders of the underdeveloped world what to do but "to place in perspective, to shed light on, and to illuminate the choices" before them. One of the best devices for this is national economic planning, not for the answers it provides but because, if done properly, "it encourages the asking of the right questions" and keeps open the lines of communication between those who make the decisions, those who illuminate them, and those who carry them out.

Western policies aiding economic development need a broader basis, in Mr. Black's view, than the expectation of immediate security and diplomatic advantages. Competition with the Soviet bloc is real enough but the conventional diplomacy is forced to treat the issue too much in the Communists' own terms so that choices are narrowed. The true security interests of the West will best be served by a sound contribution to economic growth, not a propaganda victory. Mr. Black appears to be optimistic since he believes that development "is gradually coming to be accepted as something of an end in itself because development diplomacy is

"I don't understand it, but it depresses me."

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proving a more practical way of dealing with events in the underdeveloped world than is conventional diplomacy." The implication is that development aid must be accepted "as a more or less permanent feature of Western policy with a separate and distinct status of its own."

IN a very different kind of book, Andrew Shonfield, the economics editor of the London *Observer*, shares Mr. Black's view of the need to put more money, effort, and thought into development. Naturally, he has a number of things to say about the World Bank—and about Mr. Black as well, whom he sees as much more of an apostle of private enterprise than anything in Mr. Black's lectures would suggest. Shonfield stresses the Bank's contribution and flexibility in getting semideveloped countries like Australia, Italy, and Japan "floated off" on a sea of private financing. The future looks dimmer to him because few additional countries seem ready for this kind of treatment in the next decade while other borrowers may become so heavily indebted that the Bank can make no net contribution to development unless it changes its lending practices. The International Development Association, Shonfield rightly notes, is a good bit too small for the amount of work it will be asked to do unless new sources of aid are found. He believes in bankerish standards and priorities based on the increased return that can be expected from a project. This leads him to favor "unfair shares" in which the scarce capital available for development will be put where it will do the most good; he suggests Mexico, Brazil, and India.

Shonfield has some interesting ideas about how to get more development aid, such as by exporting secondhand equipment or machinery that is obsolescent only when labor costs are high, and gearing aid to the temporary surpluses of capacity the advanced countries have from time to time. He is all for more surplus food disposal. Shonfield also champions a number of unorthodox ideas. He favors discriminatory trading arrangements, more bilateralism, more tied aid. His arguments are not always convincing, but he makes a *prima facie* case for re-examining some principles. He condemns the narrow concept of investment that ties it to capital goods alone and decries the application of labor-saving methods in countries where labor is plentiful. He is skeptical of the current emphasis on general education as a requisite for development since "the first industrial revolution . . . was managed on an extremely narrow educational base."

Mr. Shonfield doubts the possibility or the wisdom of channeling large quantities of capital through the United Nations but favors making most technical aid multilateral. First, though, he wants the U.N. to change its methods of giving technical assistance, a matter dealt with in a long, vigorous, and concrete section of the book. Paul Hoffman and the U.N. Special Fund come off very well, both organizationally and with respect to their essential "preinvestment" work.

It is too bad that Shonfield has so little to say about the mounting volume of loans repayable in local currencies. While eliminating the old problems of foreign debt repayment, these substitute new problems that we are only coming to understand. For the rest, he has written a stimulating, inevitably somewhat uneven, journalistic survey of a whole complex of problems. Easily read by anyone, it can best be judged by those already acquainted with some of the problems, just as Black's rather eloquent lectures can be read as an introduction but require some initiation to be fully appreciated. Both books should start more arguments than they settle, not least about how economic development is related to the rest of the things people want in the world.

The Businessman's Bookshelf

By Edward C. Bursk, *editor, Harvard Business Review, and education director of the International Marketing Institute.*

SOVIET ECONOMIC POWER. *By Robert W. Campbell. Houghton Mifflin.* 209 *pp.* $3.50. This volume is a lucid, comprehensive account of what Soviet economic institutions are and how well they do their job. Especially good is the discussion of the USSR's "messy" but often effective approach to technological progress.

SOVIET ECONOMIC WARFARE. *By Robert Loring Allen. Public Affairs Press.* 293 *pp.* $5. How effective are the institution of state trading and techniques of bilateralism in implementing Soviet foreign economic policy? Professor Allen's analysis, while realistic and sobering, contains a note of confidence for the West.

THE RED EXECUTIVE. *By David Granick. Doubleday.* 334 *pp.* $4.50. The organization man in Russian industry is "well established in the second most powerful country of the world, with enormous personal stakes in world stability and peace." In some respects he works and thinks like managers here and everywhere—but there are important differences, too.

THE SPENDERS. *By Stewart Henderson Britt. McGraw-Hill.* 293 *pp.* $4.95. Are there hidden forces persuading U.S. consumers to spend their money? Does advertising lead them to waste money? No, argues this thoughtful analyst of marketing, psychology, and business policy. (A former advertising agency executive, he is now a profesor at Northwestern and editor of the *Journal of Marketing*.) His reply to the "hidden persuader" argument is not flashy but highly readable, not sensational but convincing.

VICE PRESIDENT IN CHARGE OF REVOLUTION. *By Murray D. Lincoln, as told to David Karp. McGraw-Hill.* 342 *pp.* $4.95. "I would want my vice president in charge of revolution to spend time throwing us off balance, shaking us out of our coziness," says a prominent business leader. "He'd keep us so discontented with the status quo that there'd never be any doubt of our desire to seek new ways to meet people's needs."

LAW AND THE NATIONAL LABOR POLICY. *By Archibald Cox. Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California.* 111 *pp.* $2.50. One of John Kennedy's chief advisors in labor relations, and Solicitor General in the new Administration, reviews some of the principal labor-management problems disturbing people today—in particular, strikes endangering the national interest. Most of the recommendations deal with laws, their interpretations, and administration.

THE LIBERAL HOUR. *By John Kenneth Galbraith. Houghton Mifflin.* 197 *pp.* $3.50. Galbraith's views will, as usual, irritate many executives, and with some justification; but they have their customary educational value, too. The essays here cover the problem of maintaining our intellectual capital, the alienation of economics from art, economic history, and a variety of other topics.

THE CAPITAL BUDGETING DECISION. *By Harold Bierman, Jr., and Seymour Smidt. Macmillan.* 246 *pp.* $5.50. People unfamiliar with the technical literature of capital budgeting should find this exposition clear and readable. The authors seek to bring theory down to the level of practical application.

ON THE WRITING OF ADVERTISING. *By Walter Weir. McGraw-Hill.* 203 *pp.* $5. A veteran agency executive and copywriter offers brilliant insights into the nature of writing, creativity, and the marketing process.

THE EFFECTS OF MASS COMMUNICATION. *By Joseph T. Klapper. Free Press.* 302 *pp.* $5. This scholarly study of the impact on people of TV, radio, comic books, and newspapers shows that public

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attitudes are not easily corrupted and manipulated, as many have feared. However, the media do succeed in reinforcing old opinions and creating new ones.

THE MEANING OF MODERN BUSINESS. *By Richard Eells. Columbia University Press.* 427 *pp.* $6.75. The modern corporation is an "institution in search of a philosophy." It needs both a doctrine that will help it to discover the key conditions affecting its destiny and performance standards to govern its internal and external relations.

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THE HUMAN SIDE OF ENTERPRISE. *By Douglas McGregor. McGraw-Hill.* 246 *pp.* $4.95. New approaches to organization and administration may lead to "developments during the next few decades . . . comparable to those that have occurred in technology during the past half century." The author writes about these approaches with scholarly care as well as enthusiasm.

SETTING STANDARDS FOR EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE. *American Management Association.* 120 *pp.* $3.75. The participants in a three-day research seminar agree that efforts to rate and appraise executives can be improved by three significant refinements.

DEVELOPING THE CORPORATE IMAGE. *Edited by Lee H. Bristol, Jr. Scribners.* 298 *pp.* $5.95. The question is not whether your firm has an image (it almost undoubtedly has) but what to do about it. In this book thirty experts help you tackle all aspects of the problem.

THE WASTE MAKERS. *By Vance Packard. McKay.* 340 *pp.* $4.50. This is the other side of the case that Britt argues—one with which you may disagree but want to become acquainted with because of its influences. Packard claims that manufacturers, advertisers, and promoters are undermining American values. (This is the same man who wrote "The Hidden Persuaders.")

THE RESEARCH REVOLUTION. *By Leonard S. Silk. McGraw-Hill.* 244 *pp.* $4.95. The fastest growing American industry is large-scale research, and the most rapidly expanding markets are those for new products, materials, and know-how. The opportunities and problems created are as fascinating as the trends themselves.

THE SCIENTIST IN AMERICAN INDUSTRY. *By Simon Marcson. Harper.* 158 *pp.* $3.50. Based on a penetrating case study, this book illuminates the working of a large corporate research laboratory and shows how scientific research can be managed more effectively. Marcson's analysis makes an excellent sequel to the Silk book.

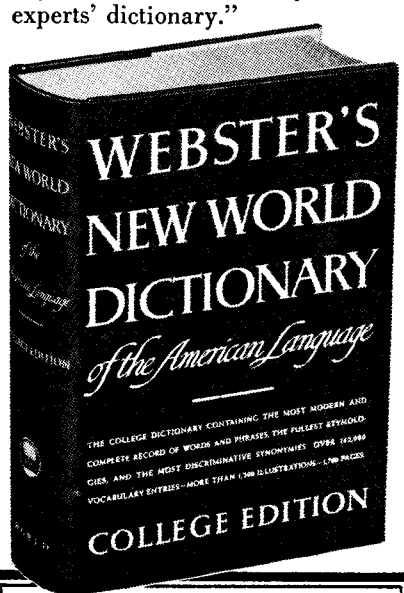
IT'S YOUR BUSINESS. *By John Harriman. Houghton Mifflin.* 182 *pp.* $3.50. A report on the success of foreign industries in challenging U.S. business in markets here and abroad. American management, labor, and government are charged with complacency and inaction.

INDUSTRIALISM AND INDUSTRIAL MAN. *By Clark Kerr, John T. Dunlop, Frederick H. Harbison, and Charles A. Myers. Harvard University Press.* 331 *pp.* $6. After studying events in many countries, four noted scholars conclude that the imperatives of industrialism force certain common patterns of development, regardless of different types of ruling elites, ideologies, and cultures.

R

Among other things, R is a medieval Roman numeral for 80; in *chemistry*, it is the symbol for radical, especially organic radical; in *electricity*, for resistance; in *mathematics*, for radius or ratio; in *physics* and *chemistry*, for gas constant. The three R's are regarded as the fundamentals of an education.

If you look in a *modern* dictionary you will find all this information and more, directly following the R entry. And of course, there's nothing more fundamental to a good education than a truly *modern* dictionary, i.e., one in which *every entry* is freshly defined—with clarity and directness—for the age in which we live. Such a dictionary is full of many surprising, illuminating, and informative things. To see a *modern* dictionary at its best, ask any bookseller to show you "the experts' dictionary."



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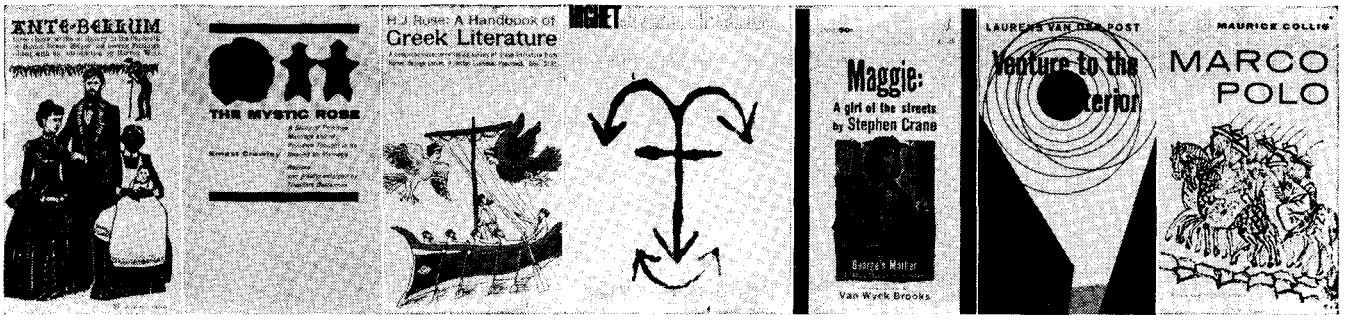

PICK OF THE PAPERBACKS

FORECAST: Now that the strains of "Auld Lang Syne" have died down and we've tossed out the Christmas cards and saved the ribbons for next year's packages, we can get down to the business of the New Year. It looks as if paperback readers will be hard pressed to keep up with the variety of books already scheduled. Van Nostrand, publishers of the successful Anvil titles, promises for February a new series, Insight Books. Under the general editorship of Harvard's Dr. David G. McClelland, they will deal with psychology and related fields. . . . A new series for Evergreen is becoming an everyday occasion. This month Pilot Books gets under way with studies of Ezra Pound, Henry James, and Wallace Stevens. The books are introductory works on writers, both American and European, of this century. . . . American Experience series is a brand-new quality paperback line published by Corinth Books. Americana is the subject and many of the books will be facsimile editions of rare items—at paperback prices, of course. Mrs. Mary Jamison's 1824 memoirs of her capture by the Indians is one of the first offerings for spring. . . . Publishers are getting together these days to publish not only hard-cover books, but paperbacks as well. Three distinguished publishing houses, Thomas Y. Crowell, Dodd, Mead, and William Morrow have put their respective heads together and come up with a paperback project titled Apollo Editions. First books scheduled for March.

CURRENT EVENTS: The French best-seller "The Algerian War," which sold more than 100,000 copies during its first month of publication, is being rushed to press by Grove. Written by French-Algerian Jules Roy, it purports to set the record straight on what's going on in Algeria today. . . . Penguin Books has sent their man Colin Legum into Africa to write a report on the newest developments in that troubled area. The book, "Congo Disaster," will appear in a few weeks.

—ROLLENE WATERMAN SAAL.

FICTION

American realism seems to thrive most heartily these days in paperback reprints. H. G. Wells called Stephen Crane "the best writer of our generation" and his novelette **"Maggie: Girl of the Streets"** (50¢) is one of the first volumes in the Premier American Realism series, edited by Van Wyck Brooks. "Maggie" appears again, along with Crane's short stories and Austin Fox's lengthy introduction, in a Washington Square Press anthology (45¢).

Like Crane, Frank Norris led a brief and chaotic life and wrote novels that shocked his contemporaries by their frank brutality. **"McTeague"** (Premier, 50¢) is an account of a man's moral degradation by the "American Zola."

For cheerier reading may we recommend **"The Armchair Esquire"** (Popular, 75¢), an anthology of articles and stories that have appeared in that magazine during the past three decades. Granville Hicks has written an engaging introduction to the volume, which includes the J. D. Salinger story "This Sandwich Has No Mayonnaise," Richard Rovere's "The Question of Ezra Pound," and George Jean Nathan's "Memoirs of Mencken and Fitzgerald."

"The Portable Faulkner" (Viking, $1.95), edited by Malcolm Cowley, is about as good an introduction to a writer's works as an anthology can provide. Episodes from six major novels, a variety of short stories, and the author's map of Yoknapatawpha county are included in the Faulkner sampler.

OTHER CULTURES

Laurens van der Post's **"Venture to the Interior"** (Compass, $1.45) is a poetic and beautifully written account of an expedition into an unknown area of British Central Africa. Another trek into uncharted regions was made by British novelist Graham Greene. In **"Journey Without Maps"** (Compass, $1.45), Greene describes his 350-mile wanderings on foot through Liberian forests. "It is only that when one has appreciated such a beginning, its terrors as well as its placidity, the power as well as the gentleness, the pity for what we have done with ourselves is driven more forcibly home," writes Greene as, journey over, he prepares once again to return to England.

In his book **"The Island Civilizations of Polynesia"** (Mentor Original, 50¢), Robert Suggs discusses the origin and cultural past of the Polynesian peoples, devoting considerable attention to the strange island legends and archeological remnants at Easter Island.

German explorer and ethnologist Leo Frobenius's **"The Childhood of Man"** (Meridian, $1.95) compares aspects of primitive life of diverse peoples ranging from South Sea Islanders to American Indians. The illustrations depicting sacred animals, tattooing, and picture writing are both excellent and abundant.

Sir Edward B. Tyler's **"Anthropology"** (Ann Arbor, $1.95), abridged by Leslie A. White from a much larger work, is a good general introduction to the field. Ernest Crawley's **"The Mystic Rose"** (Meridian, $2.25), revised and enlarged by Theodore Besterman, was a pioneer effort in man's understanding of primitive marriage. Its discussion of nuptial rites and of sex taboos, serves to illustrate that our "civilized" practices, though more subtle, aren't very different from those respected by tribal communities.

HISTORY

Two books without which a study of the Italian Renaissance would be incomplete are John Addington Symonds's **"The Age of the Despots"** (Capricorn, $1.65) and Niccolò Machiavelli's

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"History of Florence" (Torchbooks, $1.95). Though Machiavelli's is an official history written to "magnify the accomplishments of the past," it is a fascinating on-the-spot account of political and social intrigue. This world of Sforzas, Borgias, and Medicis is nowhere more lavishly described than in the words of Symonds, the nineteenth-century British historian, whose love for details provides ornamentation on an already fabulous age.

Maurice Collis's **"Marco Polo"** (New Direction, $1.35) is a retelling of Marco Polo's adventures in thirteenth-century Asia. Polo, says Collis, was a "simple and straightforward man," who took no trouble to embroider the sights he witnessed. The truth itself was bizarre enough. His years at the Khakhan's court, where empresses, elephants, and tamed lions wandered in oriental splendor, are described in a dry prose to which Collis adds his own enthusiastic interpolations.

Hiram Haydn's **"The Counter-Renaissance"** (Evergreen, $2.95) discusses the Renaissance in terms of its being an anti-intellectual movement, directed against the precise reasoning of Church-bred humanism. The prose is clear and stately, and even the nonacademic reader will find this book of great interest. Sir Harold Nicolson's **"The Congress of Vienna"** (Compass, $1.45) is another book that because of its stylish, fluent prose will appeal to the general reader. In Sir Harold's account of this meeting held to put together the pieces of Europe, Metternich, Castlereagh, and Alexander I emerge not only as heads of state but as vivid, complex men.

"Ante-Bellum" (Capricorn, $1.35), edited by Harvey Wish, contains three works on slavery. "Sociology for the South" (1854) and "Cannibals All!" (1857) were both written by George Fitzhugh, who contends that slavery was a blessing to the Negroes in comparison to the hazards of independence in a Northern industrial mill. Hinton Rowan Helper's 1857 essay "The Impending Crisis," considered as subversive a piece of literature as "Uncle Tom's Cabin," shouts out at the injustice of Negro bondage.

LITERATURE

Two sourcebooks of endless usefulness are **"A Handbook of Greek Literature"** (Everyman, $1.85) and **"A Handbook of Latin Literature"** (Everyman, $2.15), both by the distinguished English classicist H. J. Rose, whose approach to classical literature is encyclopedic. At times sheer academic scholarship rules as Professor Rose, using Latin or Greek freely, analyzes passages; interspersed with the microscopic scrutiny are pages of exuberant appraisal of everyone from Homer to Claudian.

Some 300 years before the end of Latin literature lived Decimus Junius Juvenalis, one of the most savage satirists of history and known to all as Juvenal. In **"Juvenal the Satirist"** (Galaxy, $1.85), Gilbert Highet studies with a keen eye the satires that so strongly influenced poets of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance.

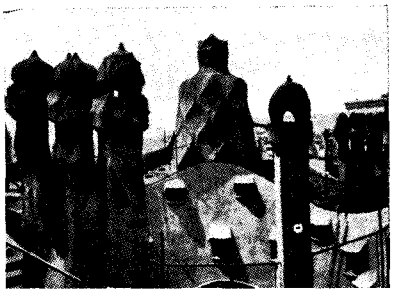
Two recent paperback releases of Shakespeare criticism by modern writers are **"Shakespeare: Modern Essays in Criticism"** (Galaxy, $2.25) and Harry Levin's **"The Question of Hamlet"** (Compass, $1.25). Contributors to the volume of essays include such eminent critics as Maynard Mack, Harley Granville-Barker, and G. Wilson Knight, while to his study of Hamlet Professor Levin brings an erudite but nonetheless free-wheeling spirit.

C. V. Wedgwood's **"Seventeenth Century English Literature"** (Galaxy, $1.25) is a quick and pleasing survey that pauses for long moments on Donne and the Carolinians, Milton, and the Restoration dramatists. Severely scholarly though it is, please note the appearance, forty years after its initial publication, of Arthur Beatty's **"William Wordsworth"** (University of Wisconsin, $1.95).

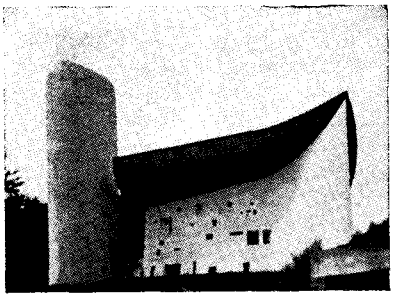
An England of some decades later is the subject of several recent paperbacks. In **"Portrait of an Age "** (Oxford, $1.75) G. M. Young talks mainly about English political and social institutions in that time of great expansion, but he also discusses Dickens, Carlyle, the pre-Raphaelites, and others who helped bring Britain to the apex of artistic power during the nineteenth century. A companion volume to the Shakespearean essays commented on above is **"Victorian Literature"** (Galaxy, $2.25), in which T. S. Eliot discusses Arnold and Pater, A. L. Rowse talks about Macaulay, and Virginia Woolf presents her view of Thomas Hardy. One more look at England is by Humphrey House in **"The Dickens World"** (Oxford, $1.75), in which the author uses Dickens's novels as mirrors, reflecting the times in which he lived.

Finally we have that brilliant book **"A Skeleton Key to Finnegans Wake"** (Compass, $1.65), by Joseph Campbell and Henry Morton Robinson. "The Key" for any who'll put their minds to it, will open the door to Joyce's private and complex world.

THE ARCHITECTURAL WONDERS of Fontainebleau, of St. Paul's Cathedral, of the Holy Family Church in Barcelona, and of the stark chapel at Ronchamps are depicted in loving and abundant detail in Universe Books Architecture Series ($1.50 per title). Each volume—**"Philbert De L'Orme," "Christopher Wren," "Antonio Gaudi,"** and **"Le Corbusier"**—is a guide to the architect's life and works. The reproductions call attention to a building as an impressive whole, then, by a narrowed focus on a panel, a doorway, a few feet of façade, the reader glimpses the unending variety and subtlety of each artist's imagination.



Antonio Gaudi.



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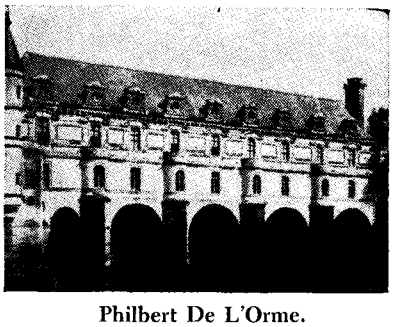
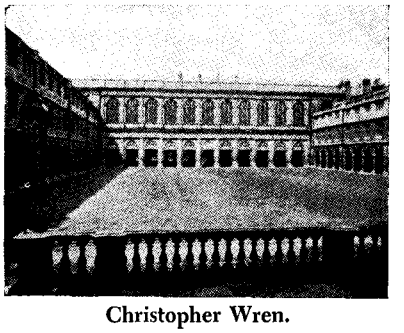


Philbert De L'Orme.



Christopher Wren.

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PERSONAL HISTORY

He Made His Way by Rhetoric

"Charles Sumner and the Coming of the Civil War," by David Donald *(Knopf. 388 pp. $6.75), depicts a pontifical, self-righteous New Englander who made political capital of martyrdom. Daniel J. Boorstin, professor of American history at the University of Chicago, wrote "Americans: The Colonial Experience."*

By Daniel J. Boorstin

WHEN Abraham Lincoln, fresh from Illinois, went to Washington in February, 1861 to await his inauguration, he had a visit from Charles Sumner, the tall, dignified Senator from Massachusetts. The Senator tried to urge the President-elect to refuse further compromise with the South, but Lincoln was put off by the stiff New Englander. Trying to find something to praise in the pompous Senator, he admired his height, and offered to "measure backs" to see who was taller. Senator Sumner humorlessly replied that this was "the time for uniting our fronts against the enemy and not our backs." After the interview, Lincoln is reported to have remarked, "I have never had much to do with bishops where I live, but, do you know, Sumner is my idea of a bishop."

Professor David Donald's detailed, scrupulously documented account does a great deal to help us understand this most un-Lincolnian of our statesmen, who made a career of self-righteousness. He tells the story of Sumner's life from his birth in Boston in 1811 until he became chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations in the precarious March of 1861. Everyone who wants to understand how conceit and human weakness helped bring on the Civil War should read this book.

The Sumner revealed here is a type of the pontificating politician who has rarely been successful in our national politics. With the rise of television he is apt to become extinct. Not exactly a demagogue, he was the "orator-statesman"—the silver-tongued politician—a man who made his way by rhetoric and gesture rather than by breadth or sharpness of mind, warmth of spirit, or adeptness at compromise. During the first fifty years of his life Sumner made not one solid, constructive contribution to American politics. While compromising politicians like Stephen A. Douglas and Daniel Webster received brickbats for their efforts to forestall a war between North and South (while incidentally, of course, forwarding their ambitions), Sumner was orating.

—From the book.
Charles Sumner—"most un-Lincolnian."

It is appropriate that Sumner should have earned his place in the textbooks by having been beaten over the head with a cane on the Senate floor by Congressman Preston S. Brooks of South Carolina on May 21, 1856, soon after Sumner's diatribe, "The Crime Against Kansas." This speech had consumed two days' sessions of the Senate, reaching a climax of personal venom and invective. For Northern extremists, as Professor Donald shows, the caning of Sumner was a godsend. Now the young Republican Party had the slogan of "Bleeding Sumner" to match that of "Bleeding Kansas," to help win the approaching Presidential election of 1856. Secretary of State Marcy estimated that the affair, exploited by the antislavery press, would cost the Democratic Party 200,000 votes. A Sumner sympathizer from the West exulted: "Every blow from the ruffian Brooks gives ten thousand [votes] to liberty." Sumner, supposedly ailing from the attack, did not fully resume his Senatorial duties for nearly four years. Then he began a new career, solidly based on his martyrdom.

Historians have long puzzled over the peculiar character of Sumner's extended invalidism. How could he bear up on arduous tours of Europe (ostensibly undertaken to restore his health), where he walked great distances, attended a strenuous round of dinner parties, and endured the jolting of extensive coach travel—and yet feel faint when he entered the Senate chamber? Suspicious observers at the time openly accused Sumner of "nursing the disease, lest it should die a natural death." Professor Donald's conclusion, after a minute and persuasive examination of the evidence, is "that Sumner was not shamming, but that his ailments were not, neurologically, the result of Brooks's beating. Cases of this sort are far from rare in medical history, and modern specialists classify Sumner's illness as 'post-traumatic syndrome.'" But, as the author observes, this is a name rather than a full explanation for Sumner's behavior: his symptoms were psychogenic.

Professor Donald's admirably perceptive account of Sumner's early life helps us understand how Sumner had been prepared for this conveniently extended spell of illness and depression. We see an ambitious and narcissistic young man bred resentfully in the penumbra of Brahmin society. Sumner's father was a Harvard graduate of old Massachusetts family, but was born out of wedlock and kept a cheerless household. For all his young life Sumner overvalued the opportunity to dine at the "best" houses in Cambridge and Boston. When he felt slighted or abandoned he took refuge in depression. Nearly all his friends married, while he remained a bachelor.

Haunted because he did not quite "belong" in Boston, he became the eloquent spokesman of New England's well-traveled provincialism—of the people whom Holmes once described as "carrying the Common in their heads as the unit of space, the State House as the standard of architecture, and measuring off men in Edward Everetts as with a yardstick." Professor Donald's story shows an opportunist who was entranced by the sound of his own voice, paralyzed by his own virtue, and who made martyrdom into valuable political capital. "Politics and morals," Sumner again and again exhorted, must become "one and inseparable in the holy wedlock of Christian sentiment."

This book, which comes down only to 1861, does not complete the story of Sumner's public life. For he remained in the Senate until his death in 1874. In this later period he wielded a greater influence in national politics than in the years before. He was a force in American foreign policy, in

(*Continued on page* 102)

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These Were Their Lives

By Ruth A. Sonneborn, *director of the Bank Street College Bookstore and consultant on children's books to school and parent groups.*

FASHIONS in writing biography have changed over the years. As children we read through innumerable stories of incredibly unblemished men and women. To a certain extent the hero-worshiping attitude still exists; and indeed, as Donald Cox pointed out in *SR* July 19, 1960, the success of today's highly skilled women biographers probably stems somewhat from the fact that "they have all literally fallen in love with their subjects." But in the interval between contemporary writers and those of the early years of the century there was the cruelly debunking period of the 1920s. Now, although our adult biographers once again love their subjects, they love with the hearts and eyes of sympathetic critics.

Juvenile biographers never passed through the debunking stage. How could they when so often their aim was to inspire young people to "read this and do likewise"? To a certain extent this purpose may still exist. Even today too many juvenile biographers describe an intensely deprived child rising with Horatio Alger swiftness from intellectual and worldly rags to intellectual and worldly riches. The emotional cost of the journey is not described; our hero just soars sweetly. However, more and more juvenile biographies, good realistic life stories, show a respect for the young reader, and credit him with the ability to accept and evaluate the weaknesses as well as the strengths of human beings.

Virginia Woolf, in the old New York *Herald* October 30, 1927, quoted the prolific biographer Sir Sydney Lee: "The aim of biography is the truthful transmission of personality." To which she added, "No single sentence could more neatly split up into two parts the whole problem of the biographer."

The problem is particularly troublesome for the writer of juvenile biography, who must steer a course between the too scholarly and the too "hopped up," between the too psychological and the too superficial interpretation, between the too lurid and the too protectively censored. It is difficult, but first-rate biographers are doing it.

However, many writers for young people still take liberties that would justifiably be condemned in an adult study and should be equally denounced in juvenile biography. In fictionalizing the story they too often neglect to tell the reader which facts are documented and which have been invented. At the very least there should be an introduction or a note at the end to indicate to the scholarly young reader (and there are many such) the extent of the license taken. It is also amazing how many books appear without the maps and photographs needed for clarity and visualization. The fashion of using illustrations for purely decorative purposes seems deplorable in biographies. Moreover, a bibliography for further reading would immeasurably strengthen most of these books.

Talking down to children is universally condemned; thinking down and writing down should be as well. Boys and girls of fourteen are well on their way to emotional and intellectual maturity; it is around this age that the greatest interest in biography develops.

With some of these points in mind it is interesting to compare two recent books about Heinrich Schliemann that appeared recently. **"The Unlikely Hero,"** by Alan Honour (Whittlesey House, $3), and **"The Walls of Windy Troy,"** by Marjorie Braymer (Harcourt, Brace, $3.50), are both well written and contain fascinating material. Both authors

—From "The Golden Hind."

—From "The Unlikely Hero."

have wisely played down the immoralities of Schliemann's father but painted in enough details for young readers to judge and understand that father-son relationship. But in general Mr. Honour achieves a "more truthful transmission of personality" than Miss Braymer. The former has escaped the trap that snares many writers for children: the temptation to explain every incident in the life of the biographee as leading straight to the ultimate goal. Schliemann, as Mr. Honour truly portrays him, lost his way for many years. His dream, born in his childhood, of discovering Homer's Troy was not the explanation for his drive to acquire wealth. It was only after long years of unhappiness as a millionaire with a cold and an unsympathetic wife that Schliemann fled, and on his travels realized his ambition.

In **"Charles Steinmetz,"** by Henry Thomas (Putnam, Live to Remember Series, $2.50), we read about this deformed little man with the brain of a giant and the emotions of a child. The author relates with admiration the rude practical jokes he played on his guests. It will be the rare young reader who will understand that this behavior was not an expression of humor, but sprang from the man's deep loneliness and his inability to make contact with people of his age. Is Mr. Thomas perhaps trying to amuse his readers rather than portray a full personality?

A recent series aims to establish reader identification by confining narration to the early years of their subjects. **"The Young Dickens,"** by Patrick Pringle, and **"The Young Shakespeare,"** by Rosemary Anne Sisson (both Roy, $3), are lively and suspenseful. Miss Sisson is to be commended for adding a note at the end of the second book admitting the invention of a period in Shakespeare's life, although this is a questionable practice.

Another series launched last year attempts to interest the six-to-eight-year-old in biography. However, **"A Man Named Lincoln," "A Man Named Washington,"** and **"A Man Named**

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Columbus," all by Gertrude Norman (Putnam, $2, $2, $2.50), are history rather than true biography. They will perhaps serve as an introduction to these great men and stimulate interest in them when these young readers reach an age capable of understanding the complexities of personality.

One of the most recent biographies in the historically minded World Landmark Books (Random House, $1.95) will be of particular interest to girls, since there seems to be a scarcity of heroines in juvenile biographical literature. **"Florence Nightingale,"** by Ruth Fox Hume, is a fast-moving, stirring account of a remarkable woman, but one cannot help wishing that the author had given us more of an insight into the powerful emotional and intellectual motives that lay behind her achievements.

In the final analysis, we must try to understand what there is about another person's life that most interests young readers and what they get out of it besides information and fleeting enjoyment. Pre-teenagers and teenagers, for whom most of the biographies are written, are struggling to understand themselves. Through identification with an honest portrayal of personality they can and do gain self-knowledge. And all of us, young and old, can make this identification only if the human being we are reading about shares some of our frailties. Young people in particular need an opportunity to share the dreams and hopes of the men and women who have made outstanding contributions to the world. And in so doing they may go on to shape dreams and hopes of their own.

BOYHOODS OF GREAT COMPOSERS. *By Catherine Gough. Illustrated by Edward Ardizzone. Walck.* 53 *pp.* $2.50. Mr. Ardizzone's illustrations are incredibly appropriate to this introduction to the lives of Handel, Mozart, Schubert, Mendelssohn, Grieg, and Elgar, each brief chapter of which is concluded with a few paragraphs on the adult musician. A satisfactory book for children familiar with these composers. Ages 7-11.

MOZART. *By Reba Paeff Mirsky. Illustrated by W. T. Mars. Follett.* 144 *pp.* $3.50. A thorough and affectionate biography, with emphasis on the composer's early years. Letters from Mozart to his family add authenticity—and verve, for the letters are charming. But only one small tune appears in notation; the book should certainly be supplemented by piano music or records for the child interested enough in the composer to seek his biography. Ages 8-12.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON. *By W. Robert Houston and M. Vere DeVault. Illustrated by Betty Cobb. Steck.* 48 *pp.* $1.75. The explanations of the physical laws discovered by the great mathematician are in simple, understandable terms, and experiments are lucidly described. Though this elementary biography offers little understanding of the man as a human being, it is valuable as an introduction to Sir Isaac as a thinker. Charts are informative. Ages 8-12.

ZACHARY, THE GOVERNOR'S PIG. *By Bruce Grant. Illustrated by Robert Frankenburg. World.* 139 *pp.* $2.95. A stubborn and resourceful razorback hog who has been raised as a pet trails his young master and the Kentucky volunteers during the War of 1812. Zachary's owner is a likable and believable boy though most of the human characters remain a bit shadowy. Ages 9-12.

THE GOLDEN HIND. *By Edith Thacher Hurd. Illustrated by Leonard Everett Fisher. Crowell.* 118 *pp.* $2.50. Sir Francis Drake is the key figure in this story about the Age of Exploration. Although the voyage with which the book is concerned is described in rather routine fashion, the honesty with which the author records Drake's piratical treatment of the Spaniards and hints at the complicated morality of the times makes this an unusual book for schoolchildren. Ages 9-12.

HENRY CLAY. *By Regina Z. Kelly. Illustrated by Charles Walker. Houghton Mifflin.* 191 *pp.* $1.95. A rather appealing story about an eager little boy, ready to recite at the slightest hint of interest, who became a candidate who would rather be right than President. It is somewhat frightening, however, to see the ladies' magazine trick of putting thoughts into italics being foisted upon helpless youth. *Let us hope this trend does not spread,* thought this reviewer. Ages 9-12.

THE BOY THEY MADE KING. *By David Scott Daniell. Illustrated by William Stobbs. Duell, Sloan & Pearce.* 151 *pp.* $3. In 1487 conspiring nobles plotted against the new Tudor king, a poor man's son was crowned, and 6,000 men died in the Battle of Stokes Field. In this skilful book facts and background details are meaningfully deployed and there emerges a psychologically valid picture of a boy who, for a brief dramatic time, was coached to play the role of Edward Plantagenet, youthful Earl of Warwick. The author concludes with a two-page note meticulously identifying the true and the fictional elements of this outstanding historical novel. Ages 10-14.

VOYAGE OF THE COLUMBIA: Around the World with John Boit, 1790-1793. *Edited by Dorothy O. Johansen. With Comments on the Art of Navigation by Dana Small.* **MARCH OF THE VOLUNTEERS: Soldiering with Lewis and Clark.** *By Constance Bordwell. Both Champoeg Press.* 92 *pp.*, 111 *pp. Both* $1.95. These first paperbacks in the new series of Reed College Beaver Books offer absorbing historical material based on firsthand journal accounts. Ages 10-14.

GREEK GODS AND HEROES. *By Robert Graves. Illustrated by Dimitris Davis. Doubleday.* 160 *pp.* $2.95. A jolting book, in which the gods speak a terse, colloquial language and show themselves to be members of a spiteful family. Only in a minimal way do they emerge as heroes or even as the symbolic figures that usually populate the myths. A doubtful approach for younger children, but possibly a stimulating one for teen-agers. Ages 12-15.

ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT. *By M. Z. Thomas. Illustrated by Elizabeth Brommer. Pantheon.* 192 *pp.* $3.50. A book about the fascinating scientist of the eighteenth century is to be welcomed. Yet one might wish for a more supple style. This text is curiously wooden, and all of the characters speak in the same rhythm and the same complex sentences. This is probably due to the book's having been translated from German. However, Humboldt's explorations and adventures are interesting and convincing. Ages 12-16.

MORE HANDS FOR MAN. *By Cornelia Spencer. Illustrated with prints and photographs. John Day.* 192 *pp.* $3.50. A history of the industrial revolution is a praiseworthy idea, but this author's attempt to view that amazing period through the eyes of an English working-class family weakens the book. Her characters never become real, but the dramatic facts make this a useful reference. Ages 12-16.

THE AMERICAN INDIAN. *By Oliver La Farge. Golden.* 213 *pp.* $5.95. An adaptation of the author's "A Pictorial History of the American Indian," this volume offers a comprehensive view of the Indians: where they came from, how they spread, what cultures they developed, and how they met the white man. Told in clear, compact text, amplified by a magnificent collection of paintings, photographs, and prints, it is a book for young people who have considerable background in American history and geography. Ages 12 up.

Reviewers for this issue are Irma S. Black, Claudia Lewis, Betty Miles, and Joan Winsor Blos, of Bank Street College.

From "Alexander von Humboldt."

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What's Behind the Gold Problem?

Continued from page 43

Board of Governors of the International Monetary Fund, I indicated that countries had allowed their policies to be determined predominantly by domestic considerations, and that they should, up to a point, try to take an outflow of short-term funds in their stride. But I added that "predominantly" must clearly be taken to mean that other considerations have not to be forgotten. It would indeed be short-sighted to neglect them, even in relation to the main domestic purpose of sustained expansion. If, in an attempt to raise activity by credit and fiscal policies, inflationary pressures are set up, the resulting cost and price increases and weakness in the external balance may soon create conditions under which economic expansion could not be maintained.

IF we now try to apply these general principles to the present American situation, I would say, for my part, that the easing of credit conditions recently undertaken by the Federal Reserve system has been the proper policy. . . . In view of the sharp increase in the surplus of exports over imports of merchandise, it seems to me that balance of payments considerations ought not to stand in the way of the proper measures that should be taken for internal reasons, especially since the transition from an inflationary psychology to the expectation of more stable prices will insure greater attention to costs. This latter consideration is certainly of crucial importance. The avoidance of cost and price increases is a vital consideration in the formation of U. S. policy, now and in the near future. . . .

I think particular attention must be paid to the fact that on the world markets generally prices have ceased to increase, and indeed that the prices of some raw materials have even declined. Supplies have caught up with demand for fuels (both oil and coal), raw materials generally, and even for most manufactured products. It is my personal belief that the world price level is determined largely by factors outside the United States, even if for some products U. S. demand is of great importance. . . .

That being the case, it is evident that an increase in costs and prices here will involve the risk that American industries could price themselves out of world markets. It would obviously be wrong to say that this has already happened, after the very impressive increase in U. S. exports over the last twelve months. Fortunately for the United States—and the world in general—there are many materials and manufactured products, including complicated types of machinery, that the outside world has to purchase in this country, and will continue to purchase here in the future. Productivity is high in the United States, but wages are also high. All this means—briefly—that from a balance of payments point of view cost increases should be avoided. . . .

If we examine past experiences we generally find that those countries that have combined cost adjustments with credit expansion have fared better than those that have not, certainly as far as recovery in business activity is concerned. Costs can, of course, be reduced in many ways, even without reducing money wages. The more attention that is paid to cost and price adjustments, the less need there will be to rely on massive credit expansion as a means of mitigating a business recession, and only in that way can a more lasting remedy be found. For a policy of cost adjustments through rationalization should make the economy more efficient, and should thus be the policy most likely to improve real wages over a period of time.

I have come to the conclusion that the proper policy on costs to be followed here in the United States ought to be very much the same whether internal or external considerations are given more weight. Indeed, in this country it is almost more important for industrialists to avoid pricing themselves out of the home market, which is so much larger than the markets provided by the export trades. . . .

Given the proper fiscal and credit and cost policies, there are a number of supplementary steps that could be taken in the United States and abroad that would help to improve the position, and I would mention the following:

It is good that individual firms in the United States should be made more aware of the possibilities of the export trade, and should try energetically to develop that part of their business. . . .

The U.S. Government and the International Monetary Fund, and of course the GATT, have for years pressed for the elimination of trade and payments discrimination against dollar goods. Great progress has been made, but continued efforts are required.

The U. S. Government has also favored a general lowering of tariffs. It is faced with a very tough problem in its relations with the new trading areas, especially in Europe, where it must seek to insure that U. S. interests are not ignored.

Then there is the whole problem of U. S. Government expenditure abroad, whether for military purposes or for assistance for the less developed countries. . . . Other countries which have regained their strength during the postwar years may well be expected to assume a larger share of such expenditure.

In the field of international capital transactions, the recent reductions in short-term interest rates in France, Great Britain, and Germany should also be helpful. . . .

Perhaps I should mention certain steps which are sometimes hinted at but which, in my opinion, should not be taken. Although European countries will, I hope, increase their share of foreign assistance, I do not believe that the U. S. contribution can be substantially curtailed. It seems to me that the many statements made on this subject during the election campaign pointed to continued U. S. concern about further progress in the underdeveloped countries and the importance of continued assistance for that purpose. A greater danger, which should be avoided in any circumstances, would be to increase tariffs. . . .

IN particular it is essential that there should be close contact between the financial authorities on the two sides of the Atlantic—a relationship we failed to establish in the period between the two wars. The International Monetary Fund has been useful in this context, and it is now proposed that the Organization for European Economic Cooperation, in which the United States and Canada were associate partners, be transformed into the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, in which the United States and Canada would be full members. . . .

Fortunately today the leading industrial countries have nearly all accumulated sufficient, or almost sufficient, reserves, especially taking into account the secondary reserves available to them through the International Monetary Fund. In the next few years I hope we shall be able to consolidate the present exchange structure, and on this basis be able to create the conditions for sustained economic growth. . . .

Assuming that we may prevent both inflation and deflation, we shall have to adjust our practices to the requirements of a more stable price level, which I am fairly confident we shall be able to achieve. For my own part, I have no fear that a period of stagnation will result. It is my opinion that the attainment of a satisfactory rate of growth and higher employment and the preservation of a relatively stable price level are fully consistent goals. In view of the great technological developments, and for other reasons, demand for capital all over the world may be expected to be large, and there should be no accumulation of idle savings.

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EDUCATION IN AMERICA

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SR/EDUCATION

JANUARY 21, 1961

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Johnny Goes to College

THE SPOTLIGHT on the schools has moved upward through the grades with the birth-rate bulge. Six years ago the widely heard question "Why can't Johnny read?" implied that Johnny was a small boy in the elementary school—one of the 24,000,000 American children born since World War II.

After the launching of Sputnik the question changed to: "Why doesn't Johnny show more enthusiasm for the 'hard' subjects: mathematics, science, and foreign languages?" Johnny was now in high school but still having a bad time because the focus of attention had turned to the secondary level where schools were beginning to be swamped with the postwar babies.

Today Johnny is almost ready for college but it becomes increasingly clear that the colleges aren't ready for him. The result is that higher education is coming in for its share of critical attention. In this there is an ironic justice because the presidents, deans, and professors of colleges and universities have been among the most vocal critics of the lower schools and when the attention turns to them they will probably be just as hurt, indignant, and defensive as were those responsible for elementary and secondary education. They will insist that the critics are unfair and uninformed, but this won't stop the criticism or keep it from bringing about some dramatic changes in the colleges just as it has in the elementary and secondary schools.

Fortunately, some college leaders are willing to subject their own institutions to critical examination. Dr. Seymour Harris of Harvard says that "the proliferation of courses is a scandal from the viewpoint of both economics and education." President Grayson Kirk of Columbia University says, "Too many colleges have become travesties on seats of learning by glorifying sports, social organizations, and recreational activities to the point of absurdity. There are schools that actually give credit toward degrees for courses in square dancing, fly casting . . . and beating the bass drum in the band."

Earl McGrath, former U.S. Commissioner of Education, says, "In many colleges and professional schools instruction often is concerned with the trivial and transient rather than the significant and the permanent." Philip Coombs of the Ford Foundation reports that colleges "use their available classrooms at only 46 per cent of capacity and their laboratories at only 38 per cent of capacity" at a time when they are rightly alarmed about the shortage of space. Moreover, many colleges, particularly in the East, remain closed for a third of the weeks in the year.

While foreign language is being newly stressed in the elementary school there are still several hundred colleges in the United States that require no foreign language either for admission or for graduation. Some have a rigid requirement that every graduate must be able to swim the length of the pool but are much more flexible and lenient about their require-

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ments in mathematics and history. Some require no philosophy and not one college out of a dozen requires any knowledge of geography or even takes the trouble to find out whether its graduates have it.

There will be indignant replies to all these charges. It will be said that a college cannot be efficient in its use of time and space—that efficiency is the antithesis of scholarship. Some will insist that Americans have little use for a foreign language and that square dancing and fly casting are really more "practical" than philosophy and mathematics. Many will protest that, because of individual differences in interest and ability, and because of the difficulty in deciding which subjects are most important, a college must offer a wide variety of subjects and let the student choose. Some will say that a study of geography does not belong in college while swimming does.

A vigorous debate should help the colleges and the American people to clarify these issues and to gain a new sense of the true purpose of higher education. The editors of the Education Supplement will be happy to provide a forum for the debate.

—P. W.

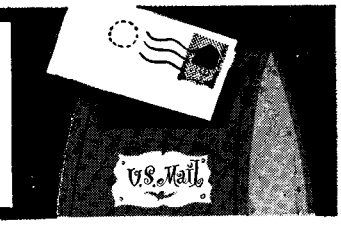
Why College Takes Four Years

The origins of some of the time-honored practices in Higher Education do not tend to strengthen our confidence in these practices. Note, for example, the profound analysis and study which undergirds the widely-accepted idea that a college education consists of four years of post-high school study—not three years, or three and a half, or five or six, but *four* years.

Well, it happened like this. The main reason for the four-year college course today is that Harvard adopted it in 1636 (324 years ago). Harvard adopted it because Cambridge and Oxford had it; they had it because Oxford, when started in the middle of the 13th century, adopted it. Oxford adopted it because English parents who had been sending their sons to Paris to study informally, decided some years earlier that four years of university study . . . would be a reasonable length of time to stay away from home. In this careful, studied, scientific fashion we have concluded that four years constitutes a complete college education.

SHARVY G. UMBECK, *President of Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois.*

Letters to the Editor



EDITOR'S NOTE: *We have received so many letters this month that we have decided to sit back and let our readers have their say for the better part of two pages. Our only regret is that even this amount of space is not enough to reflect adequately the comment we have received.*

CORRECTION, PLEASE

REFERENCE IS MADE to the item "Ends and Means" in REPORT CARD [*SR*, Dec. 17]. The incident referred to occurred at Graysville, Indiana, and not Sullivan. Sullivan happens to be the county seat; thus the news came from Sullivan rather than from the town of Graysville.

WAYNE E. ADER,
Superintendent,
Sullivan City Schools.

Sullivan, Ind.

DESEGREGATION

G. W. FOSTER, JR'S article, "1960: Turning Point for Desegregation?" [*SR*, Dec. 17] was extremely well done. He stated the situation beautifully, but I could not let the opportunity pass to clarify his thinking as regards Negro teachers.

He says: "Many [Negro] teachers flood summer sessions at the graduate schools of education in the North, but a large number cannot meet the academic standard set. Professional sympathies often result in donating points for deficient academic performances in individual courses, and ultimately in downgrading the standards for the master of education degrees awarded Southern Negro teachers at Northern universities."

He further states: "Many Negro teachers know, or at least suspect, that these degrees are sometimes obtained on watered-down terms. This only adds to the concerns they share with most other Negro teachers about desegregation . . . pupil desegregation has not been followed by teacher integration. . . . Negro teachers have not been retained by school systems that have desegregated."

I beg to differ with Mr. Foster on the above quotes. First of all, the Northern universities do *not* set up separate classes for Southern Negro teachers, nor are our papers, tests, or class participation evaluated in terms of who is a Southern Negro teacher or a white teacher. His statement is a reflection on the integrity of the professors at these Northern schools, who, by the way, are sometimes visiting professors from Southern universities. I have attended four of the largest (and the best) and have never experienced any leniency because I was a Southern Negro nor have I found any undue discrimination against me because I was a Negro.

Miami, Fla. PAULINE WILLIS.

A PARENT'S BLUEPRINT

THE ARTICLE "A Parent's Blueprint," by Mrs. Mildred B. Garrett [*SR*, Dec. 17], as well as the accompanying editorial comment bring up one phase of school problems which has needed discussion for a long time: the reference to "professional educators, who sometimes seem to want lay support without lay advice." One might, with considerable reason, go further and refer to an unfortunately common type of professional educator, especially in our elementary and high schools, who welcomes the lay supporter but who casts into the outer darkness any supporter who has the temerity to become a lay critic.

Whether or not we agree with Mrs. Garrett's final solution, it is to be hoped that such articles as hers will serve to sharpen the critical faculties of our PTA audiences.

JAMES C. ANDREWS.

Conway, N.H.

MILDRED B. GARRETT'S "A Parent's Blueprint" is an unerring evaluation of our public schools and the teaching profession. Mrs. Garrett's recommendations, if faithfully executed, would advance public education far beyond its present status and would provide the most auspicious climate for "academic training and intellectual development" that the world has known. Teachers, as well as parents, must labor diligently to correct the blunders of the past.

RICHARD H. HART,
Principal,
Hillsboro Grade Schools.

Hillsboro, Ore.

THANK YOU for the most exciting statement on education that I have seen: "A Parent's Blueprint." It does take a layman to make a point that the specialists in the field should.

AL ARMBRUSTER.

Groton, Conn.

FROM WHAT vantage point has Mrs. Garrett watched public education deteriorate for twelve years? Did she watch one local system "deteriorate"? Did she make a national survey? How did she gather facts on which to base this sweeping assertion?

Though as a teacher my observations may be suspect to Mrs. Garrett, I think many parents would agree that public school education has improved these last twelve years, due mainly to professional educators, working with few funds and less public support. We have seen sweeping improvements in methods of teaching foreign languages, successful attempts at grouping by ability, ungraded primaries,

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introduction of teachers' aides to assist in the classroom, and increasing salaries that are attracting more competent teachers yearly.

ROSALIN MILLER.

St. Louis, Mo.

GREAT DISCOVERIES often occur simultaneously to several thinkers, and long litigations seldom settle just who happened upon them first. For this reason (and others) I do not plan to sue Mrs. Mildred B. Garrett for infringement, although it is indubitably true that the thought occurred to me some time ago. Since she appeared in print first, let her have full credit.

Mrs. Garrett also expresses herself much more succinctly than I. She says: "In the layman's mind it is obvious that any tests and techniques that can appraise the extent and quality of learning must automatically appraise the extent and quality of the teaching. Minimum salaries will be established for all teachers, but what each makes after the probationary period will be based on her worth as reflected by the progress of her pupils."

This is simple, mathematically juggleable, and unassailably logical. Caroline Doe, teacher, has a class of twenty-five pupils. Each gains one year of reading ability on a standardized test in the year he spends with Miss Caroline. 25 x 1 = 25, which multiplied by a *k* factor determines her standard pay.

Helen Doe also has twenty-five pupils, but under her greater expertise, each pupil gains two years. 25 x 2 = 50, and her pay automatically and justly becomes twice as much as Miss Caroline's. Now in the city where I teach, a Mary Doe has forty-two pupils who gain an average of only nine-tenths of a year. 42 x .9 = 37.9, which multiplied by *k* gives exhausted, struggling Mary less pay than hyperefficient Helen, but more than competent Caroline.

Now I am sure that Mrs. Garrett would agree to a further refinement of her scheme because she is acutely aware of individual differences. She says unequivocally: "Some students will plod along and some will race ahead. . . ." Justice demands that each teacher be given a handicap depending upon whether she has racers or plodders. After all, if doctors were paid for the number of their patients who gained in health, who would help the terminal cases? I propose that each pupil be given a degree-of-difficulty score that would be included in the formula for determining the teacher's salary. It would look something like this:

Home lacks books and magazines	1.23
Has never been to the zoo	1.34
Sickly—absent 20% of the time	1.791
No regular meals—nibbles on chips	2.05
Speaks no English	2.6
Has been beaten with a belt from the age of eighteen months	2.90008
On the other side of the ledger:	
Mother belongs to the PTA	0.99
Mother and Father belong to the PTA	0.98

Perhaps Mrs. Garrett would consider all this a bit esoteric. In which case I have a simpler plan: Mothers will provide the schools with identical children who measure exactly zero in reading ability when they enter first grade, who never develop distracting hobbies like music or puttering with Papa's tools, who never accelerate in spurts, but who chug along the prescribed identical curriculum in exact relation to the quality of the teaching they receive.

Under these circumstances, we teachers will be delighted to force-feed the little geese by propping open their gullets and tamping down the greatest possible amount of corn. The increased production of *pâté de fois gras* will be startling.

ADAH MAURER.

Chicago, Ill.

PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS

THE SIMPLEST and most cogent answer to Father R. A. Bernert's complaint against "discrimination" in the case of parents who are paying double for parochial school education is that those who desire church control of schools must bear the economic burden entailed in that privilege. Special-interest teaching should not be paid for out of the public treasury.

CLARENCE F. AVEY,
Superintendent, Springfield District,
New England Conference of the
Methodist Church.

Springfield, Mass.

I HAVE OFTEN wondered why Roman Catholic parents do pay double. The only reason I know is this: their church insists on a separate educational system for its families. One fairly obvious implication is that the public system is not good enough. And this places said parents in a very awkward position, to say the least.

GORDON M. ALDRICH,
Pastor,
Congregational Church.

Rutland, Vt.

PARENTS SHOULD NOT be penalized for sending their children to independent schools—especially when by doing so they meet all of the state requirements for the education of their children. The fairest method of financing education would be through a G.I. Bill type program where the individual obtains money from the government in the form of vouchers to be used at the school of his choice. Separation of church and state would be maintained.

Public schools would still exist for the people who prefer them to independent schools. But the public school would no longer have a monopoly over the religious beliefs of the poor.

ROY LECHTRECK.

St. Louis, Mo.

THOUGH HAVING BEEN a teacher in a public school in Holland for forty-five years, I am not in a position to write on educational problems in the United States. However, in the issue of November 19, under the heading "While School Keeps" you publish a few paragraphs on non-public education. Partly you review an article in *Teachers College Record* by Father Neil G. McCluskey, S.J., which immediately drew my attention, for Father McCluskey's persuasive (?) logic in supporting his position resembles that used by the defenders of non-public schools over here as one drop of water resembles another. With that logic they have persuaded the Dutch Government first to subsidize their schools, and later to pay all their costs except those which are nonessential and not the result of governmental regulations. So that now we have confessional schools from kindergarten up to full-fledged universities supported from public funds.

GEORGE J. LINDEMANS.

Papendrecht, Holland

GOALS OF EDUCATION

I ENJOYED GREATLY your article on "The Goals of Education" [*SR*, Dec. 17] and could not agree with you more. I am a frustrated school teacher. I feel that the increasing demands, expectations, and responsibilities placed on our schools are usually responsible for our failures.

JOSIE D. CRISTO.

Philadelphia, Pa.

THE INTELLECTUAL GIRL

A PROPERLY EDUCATED girl will evolve into a woman who is satisfied with her role. As a girl she may not have known that there exist any intellectual satisfactions beyond the standardized competitive situations of the classroom. However, when she becomes a woman she will be able to make her own rules. While the intellectual *girl*, cast as housewife and mother, may find no use for her brain power, the intellectual *woman* will find countless ways to exercise her wits.

ELAINE STRAUSS.

Highland Park, N. J.

CONGRATULATIONS to Ethel Strainchamps for "The Plight of the Intellectual Girl." Being somewhat biased, I think only a female could have accurately stated the case.

SUSAN CURNUTT.

Blacksburg, Va.

STATISTICS

IN YOUR "Facts and Figures" chart [*SR*, Dec. 17] you give the median salary for college faculty members. Why did you use the median instead of the mean?

LEROY C. JOHNSON.

Corvallis, Ore.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *We prefer the median because it is not influenced by extreme but unusual cases and gives a more accurate picture of the salary of the typical teacher. Half the teachers get more than the median; half get less.*

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WHY WE DISAGREE

The Council for Basic Education is a nonprofit organization whose primary purpose is "the strengthening of the basic subjects in American schools, especially English, mathematics, science, history, and foreign language." Its policies have often been at odds with those of the National Education Association and other professional educational organizations which assign a broader responsibility to the schools, and—as the CBE sees it—are prone to neglect the teaching of the basic subjects. Mortimer Smith, editor of the CBE Bulletin, and author of "A Citizen's Manual for Public Schools," and other books on education, is one of the leading spokesmen for basic education. In this article, adapted from an address given before the Higher and Professional Education Division of the Minnesota Education Association, he discusses the basis of the conflict between the two points of view.

By MORTIMER SMITH

PROFESSIONAL educators, and those academicians and laymen who occasionally raise some objections to the theories and practices of professional education, ought to make more effort to see how the other half lives. Whatever our differences, we presumably share a common objective, the improvement of American schools. Surely a greater degree of fraternization will be a healthy thing even if both sides bring to it a touch of the condescension of the Church of England cleric who said to the nonconformist minister: "We are both doing God's work, you in your way and I in His."

Having made my bow to cooperation, I think I should raise a warning against the American tendency toward vague good will and togetherness for the sake of togetherness. Our national desire to round off the edges of difference, to obscure fundamental philosophic viewpoints, to achieve amorphous agreement, is expressed in the remark made in the recent political campaign that the ideal running mate for either Mr. Kennedy or Mr. Nixon would be a colored nun named Ginsberg. Am I wrong in thinking I can detect in education this principle of what might be called the universal contingency? Are we trying to gloss over our problems by seeking to find a figure in education who will be all things to all men, let us say, a scholarly Physical Education man named Rickover?

Five years ago those who advocated strengthening academic standards and returning to sound basic education in public schools were a small and lonely and often maligned band, considered eccentrics and disturbers of the peace in the best of all possible educational worlds. The situation since Sputnik has changed radically. Today me-tooism in education flourishes and proliferates; everybody is in favor of "quality education," everybody wants to help the "academically gifted," everybody wants to return to stricter standards. If we are to take this seriously, such an organization as the Council for Basic Education, devoted uncompromisingly to the academic disciplines, can simply wither away. I do not think we can take it entirely seriously; I think many of those who have jumped on the band wagon are not enjoying the ride and do not want to reach the destination.

From the viewpoint of basic education, there is no doubt that many fine things are now happening in American schools, but they are happening because schoolmen can now, in the changing climate of public opinion, do things they have always wanted to do but have been reluctant to do in the face of professional disapproval. I believe these schoolmen are in the minority. I believe that it is as true now as it was before Sputnik that there are two schools of thought in this country about educational purpose; that the viewpoints represented are not easily reconcilable; that the phrases "good education" and "good schools" are cant phrases until precisely defined; and I believe further that if we operate on the assumption that we all agree on the major issues and disagree only on minor details, we will be doing a disservice to the youth who attend our schools and will only delay the resolving of our educational problems.

If I am correct in thinking that, despite lip service on the part of many educators, basic education is still a lonely cause, and that there exist fundamental and vital differences between the advocates of basic education and perhaps the majority of professional educators, it may serve a useful purpose to attempt to define the real basis for conflict in American education, at least as it looks to one fallible observer.

The first of the differences relates to the fundamental question of the purpose of education and what schools are for. Here the conflict is between unity and multiplicity, between those who think that education, as represented in the formal institution of the school, must have a selective and not indiscriminate and miscellaneous function, and those who think that the educational program should follow the Biblical injunction to be fruitful and multiply.

THE advocate of basic education maintains that education as carried on in schools must deal primarily with intellectual training, with making young people literate in the essential fields of human knowledge, with transmitting the heritage and culture of the race. He acknowledges that formal education also plays a role in the social adjustment of the individual child, that it contributes to his physical welfare, the development of his personality, and his vocational competence; he is even ready to agree that the school on occasion must be a combined social-service and baby-sitting agency, even sometimes an amateur psychiatric clinic. He acknowledges that the teacher and the administrator have many important things to do besides cultivate the youthful intellect. At the same time, however, he would insist that schools must have some priorities, must decide what is primary and what is secondary. The school, he insists, cannot be responsible for our total education, for the sum of experiences, information, and skills we acquire as we go through life.

In contrast to this viewpoint, an all-inclusive veiw of the purpose of education and schools has gained momentum during the last thirty or forty years. This viewpoint has been summed

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up succinctly by a professor of education who says: "The chief goal of education is the development of physical health, mental and emotional stability, fine personality, and effective citizenship." The department of education in Connecticut has suggested that this total goal for schools be translated into an actual high school program that would include, in addition to the traditional subjects, the following: socio-economic problems, home care of the sick, driver education, personal grooming, hospitality, housing, boy and girl problems, and an understanding of reproduction (no stated relation between the last two items).

Another state department of education (California), in a list containing over fifty items, suggests that the school must help youth to "enjoy a rich, sincere, and varied social life," "observe the amenities of social behavior," "be skilled in homemaking," "become an informed and skillful buyer," "develop a sense of humor."

Schoolmen will recognize these catch-all programs as a commonplace, similar to those advocated for many years by state departments, schools of education, and national educational organizations.

ON THIS matter of priorities in education, the picture seems clear: One group believes that the school must maintain its historic role as the chief institution in charge of intellectual training; another group—and perhaps the dominant one in public education—maintains that intellectual training is only a part of the school's total program, and not necessarily the most important part.

A second ground for conflict is a natural corollary of the difference in viewpoint just described. If you believe that intellectual training is the primary function of schools you will naturally believe that education must have a particular content, that there is a hierarchy of subjects, that the important studies in the curriculum are English, history, the sciences, mathematics, foreign languages. On the other hand, if you think the school is required to teach everything, it is only a short step to thinking that nothing in the school program is any better than anything else, or even that the traditional subjects are slightly stuffy and probably unnecessary for many students.

For a long time now there has been a tendency to downgrade the basic subjects. Twenty years ago the highly respected American Council on Education, in a pamphlet called "What the High Schools Ought to Teach," deplored the emphasis on mathematics and English, describing them as "difficult" subjects and as "stumbling blocks" that drive young people away from high schools. Foreign-language study was belittled and it was remarked that only "a few pupils need mathematical physics." (How strange this sounds today when we have recently witnessed the enactment of a National Defense Education Act based partly on the assumption that foreign languages and mathematics are vital to the national defense.) Four years later came another report, called "Education for *All* American Youth," issued by a body that probably has as much influence in setting the direction of public education as any in the country, namely, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. Here again the role of the school in fostering intellectual virtues was played down and we were assured that "there is no aristocracy of 'subjects'. . . . Mathematics and mechanics, art and agriculture, history and homemaking are all peers."

Four years after this came evidence that this changing conception of the purpose of education was to affect the college as well as the school. In this year was issued "Higher Education for American Democracy," a report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, in which it was stated that "we shall be denying educational opportunity to many young people as long as we maintain the present orientation of higher education toward verbal skills and intellectual interests." This report was not very specific as to the content of a higher education devoid of intellectual interests but presumably the social adjustment aspect of education is not only to prevail in high school but in college as well. I may be permitted to remark, in passing, that if the college is not to be a center of intellectual interests, it can only be higher in the sense of being above the elementary and high schools.

Here, then, in the matter of priority of subject matter, is a second area where there is deep disagreement in contemporary education.

Another ground for difference of opinion is found in the field of educational psychology and child development. The so-called behavioral sciences, including educational psychology, are here to stay and I do not mean to belittle them. There is no doubt that they have revealed much pertinent information about learning and about the nature of the learner. But if the critics are correct in maintaining that there has been a breakdown in educational accomplishment among American young people, is not the cause in large part traceable to an uncritical acceptance on the part of administrators and teachers of some of the "findings" of educational psychology? These findings have often encouraged those who are in charge of elementary schools—where the basis of all future learning is laid—to adopt a policy of permissiveness and postponement and to overlook the primary educational principle that a normal young child is avid for the tools of learning.

THE advocate of basic education has a much less reverent attitude towards educational psychology than does the professional educator. When he considers this "science" he finds few definitive answers but many "schools of thought" which are often incompatible, functionalism rubbing shoulders with behaviorism, field theory juxtaposed with Freudian psychoanalysis. He cannot share the almost superstitious veneration of "scientific educational psychology" that has grown up in recent years, believing that it is not justified by concrete results. Interesting findings in this field, tentative insights, partial explanations, and plausible theories are too often presented as scientific facts, as final truth.

Teachers, administrators, and parents should realize that much of today's "science" in this field will be super-

(*Continued on page* 96)

"No thanks. He knows too much already."

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THE COLLEGES PLAN FOR A DECADE AHEAD

Reports from Nineteen States

THE FACE of higher education in America is scheduled to change dramatically in the decade just ahead. Children now in elementary school will find, when they reach college, that the opportunities open to them differ greatly from those that were available to their parents. Among the changes anticipated:

► Enrollments will double but the growth of institutions will be uneven. Publicly supported colleges will grow much faster than private ones. Universities already large and complex will grow more rapidly than the independent colleges. Urban institutions will grow much faster than rural colleges. Public junior colleges will grow most rapidly of all.

► Faculty shortages will be acute. This will result in larger classes, more instruction by television, more independent study, and more credit by examination without class attendance.

► Tuition charges will mount but the number of scholarships will increase.

► A much larger proportion of the national income will flow into higher education.

► Admission standards will rise in many colleges but in 1970 there will still be a considerable number of colleges open to high school graduates of only average academic aptitude.

► More students will live at home while attending college. This will be made necessary by the shortage of dormitory space and will be made possible by the increased availability of community colleges.

► More colleges will operate on a year-round basis and many students will complete work for a college degree in three years instead of four.

► A much larger number of college graduates will go on to graduate work.

► Teachers colleges, in most of those states where they still exist as separate institutions, will become general state colleges or liberal arts colleges.

► There will be much more state-wide planning, and probably more planning of higher education on the national level.

► In several states there will be a dramatic reorganization of the entire system of public higher education.

These predictions are based on reports made on higher education in nineteen states and several cities and regions. They represent the informed judgments of men and women who have studied carefully and in depth the problems facing the colleges and universities in their respective states. A list of the reports appears in the box on the opposite page.

All of these reports are, in some sense, "official." Some of the committees were appointed by state legislatures, others by the Governors of their respective states, still others by state commissioners of education or heads of state universities. Some of the reports are primarily statistical, dealing with enrollment figures and projected costs. Others go more

THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Type of Institutionss	Number of Institutions			Enrollment		
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total
4-Year Institutions						
Universities	82	59	141	931,328	533,532	1,464,860
Liberal Arts Colleges	87	669	756	323,628	642,112	965,740
Teachers Colleges	167	31	198	339,513	12,227	351,740
Technological Schools	26	25	51	43,399	60,891	104,290
Theological Schools	—	173	173	—	41,722	41,722
Schools of Art	2	44	46	227	15,150	15,377
Other Professional Schools	8	67	75	7,851	39,222	47,073
Junior Colleges	312	200	512	356,922	54,573	411,495
TOTAL—United States	684	1,268	1,952	2,002,868	1,399,429	3,402,297

Source: U.S. Office of Education. Circular No. 621, 1960. Figures are for 1959.

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deeply into the meaning and purpose of higher education and the responsibility of the state in providing for the nation's manpower needs. Some take a provincial view, while others see their own states in relation to the problems of higher education in the nation.

Until three or four years ago few colleges or universities had any clear and realistic plans for meeting the enrollment expansion that everyone knew—or should have known—was coming. Although the babies were born and had been counted, and although the percentage of the age group attending colleges had risen steadily for generations and was continuing to rise, few college authorities were willing until late in the 1950s to face the fact confronting them—the fact that college enrollments, already at an all-time high, would at least double and perhaps triple by 1970.

Suddenly near-panic set in. We became aware that what had once been called a "tidal wave" of students was not a wave but a new and permanently higher level. Private institutions of the more prestigious variety contented themselves for a time with the belief that they could solve their own problems by raising admission standards and letting state colleges take care of the masses. The weaker private colleges, which have always had trouble attracting students, looked forward happily to the day when students would be knocking at their doors. State colleges assumed that they would be taken care of somehow—some continued to recruit students vigorously—and many a college president was happy about the fact that a bigger institution would mean a bigger and perhaps a better-paid job.

TODAY the problems are being faced more realistically. Careful plans are being made in at least a third of the fifty states. It has become apparent that if private colleges and universities cannot absorb their share of the increased load, the publicly supported colleges must be prepared to accept an ever increasing share, however painful it may be to the taxpayer. Meanwhile, however, the heads of private colleges are becoming aware that their problems cannot all be solved by raising admission standards. When standards become so high that many able applicants are rejected—including the sons and daughters of distinguished alumni—the effect on public relations and on sources of endowments can be devastating to a college. In at least a few states, private colleges are preparing to ask for state or federal assistance, either in the form of scholarships or as direct grants.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *Where no source or publisher is given, we suggest that readers wishing to obtain copies of these reports write directly to the Commissioner of Education in the appropriate state.*

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State Systems of Higher Education

EACH STATE has its own administrative structure for higher education and each is different. Some examples:

OREGON has a unified system of higher education that incorporates the state university, the state agricultural college, a college of education, two small state colleges that were formerly teachers colleges, and a larger state college in Portland. All are administered by a single chancellor, are controlled by a single board, and present a single budget to the legislature.

WASHINGTON has separate boards for each of its two state universities and each of the three colleges of education. There is no over-all administrative head, and prior to the 1960 study there was little statewide planning.

OHIO has five state universities, each with its own board and administrative head. Ohio has not had a teachers college for thirty years.

CALIFORNIA has the most elaborately planned system of public higher education in the nation. The University of California is located on seven campuses and is planning new ones. The fifteen state senior colleges operate under a different board and are entirely separate from the University. The sixty-three public junior colleges come under the administration of city school systems but receive state aid.

MINNESOTA has nine public junior colleges and five teachers colleges which are on the way to becoming general state colleges, but higher education in the state is dominated by the University of Minnesota, which enrolls more students than all the other public and private colleges in the state combined. The university incorporates the functions of a land grant college with those of a major university with its graduate and professional schools. The undergraduate colleges provide a diversity of curricula for students of different interests and aptitudes.

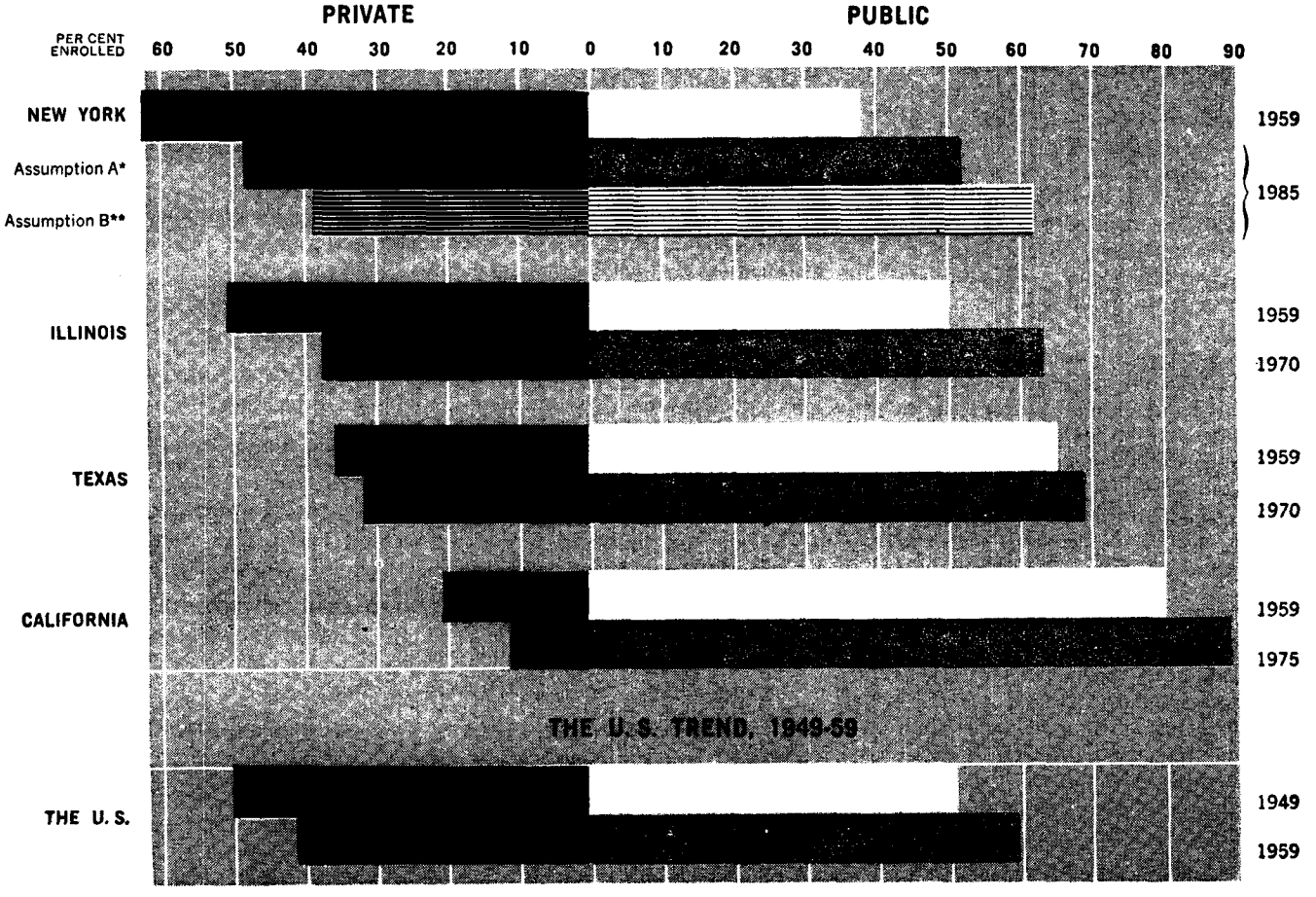
NEW YORK has a system of higher education that appears to an outsider (and to many insiders) to be a vast confusion of overlapping organizational structures. There is a Board of Regents which has responsibility for elementary and secondary schools as well as colleges and which has some responsibility for private as well as public colleges. In addition, there is a State University of New York and a University of the State of New York, but these are administrative rather than instructional units and have no campuses of their own. There are also the Colleges of the City of New York, which receive state financial aid for some of their programs but whose place in the state university system is unclear. The New York report is a vigorous effort to bring order out of this confusion.

Teachers Colleges

IN THE MAJORITY of the states surveyed the teachers colleges already have become general state colleges. Reports from other states indicate that this trend will continue. It seems a safe guess that the state teachers college as a separate undergraduate institution will have disappeared by 1970.

The New York report says, "We propose that the state colleges of edu-

Heavier Burden for Public Colleges



*New York Assumption A estimates 150 per cent increase in private enrollments by 1985.
**New York Assumption B estimates 100 per cent increase in private enrollments by 1985.
Sources: State data from New York State report.
U. S. data from U. S. Office of Education.

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cation be converted into liberal arts colleges starting immediately. . . . This recommendation rests upon a number of assumptions and facts, including:

a. Teachers should have a good general education. They should be as well educated as other college graduates in the communities where they teach.

b. Strong state liberal arts colleges, with teacher-education programs and low tuition, would attract more students to teaching.

c. The curricula of the state colleges of education need revision. The professional courses in education have been increased out of proportion to the legitimate subject matter in the field and some of the courses in the arts and sciences appear to be of dubious academic value."

In Washington, where the three teachers colleges have offered a liberal arts program for many years, the report recommends that the names of these institutions be changed from "Colleges of Education" to "State Colleges."

The Minnesota report says, "The teachers colleges are serving the dual function of providing general education and professional education for the youth of the areas they serve," and recommends a complete reconstitution of the State Teachers College Board on a pattern similar to that of the Board of Regents but backs away from the question of whether these institutions should expand their liberal arts programs, saying only that this problem "should be constantly studied."

Two-Year Colleges

MOST OF THE states surveyed anticipate a great expansion of two-year institutions—either junior colleges or community colleges. Some are expected to grow into four-year institutions while others will serve as "feeder" institutions for four-year colleges, and, at the same time, provide higher education for students who are not interested in or capable of a standard four-year course.

The Illinois report states the objective of a number of reports when it recommends that the state "should extend locally controlled junior colleges eventually to cover the state so that all high school graduates are within commuting distance of an institution of higher learning offering two years of education beyond the high school."

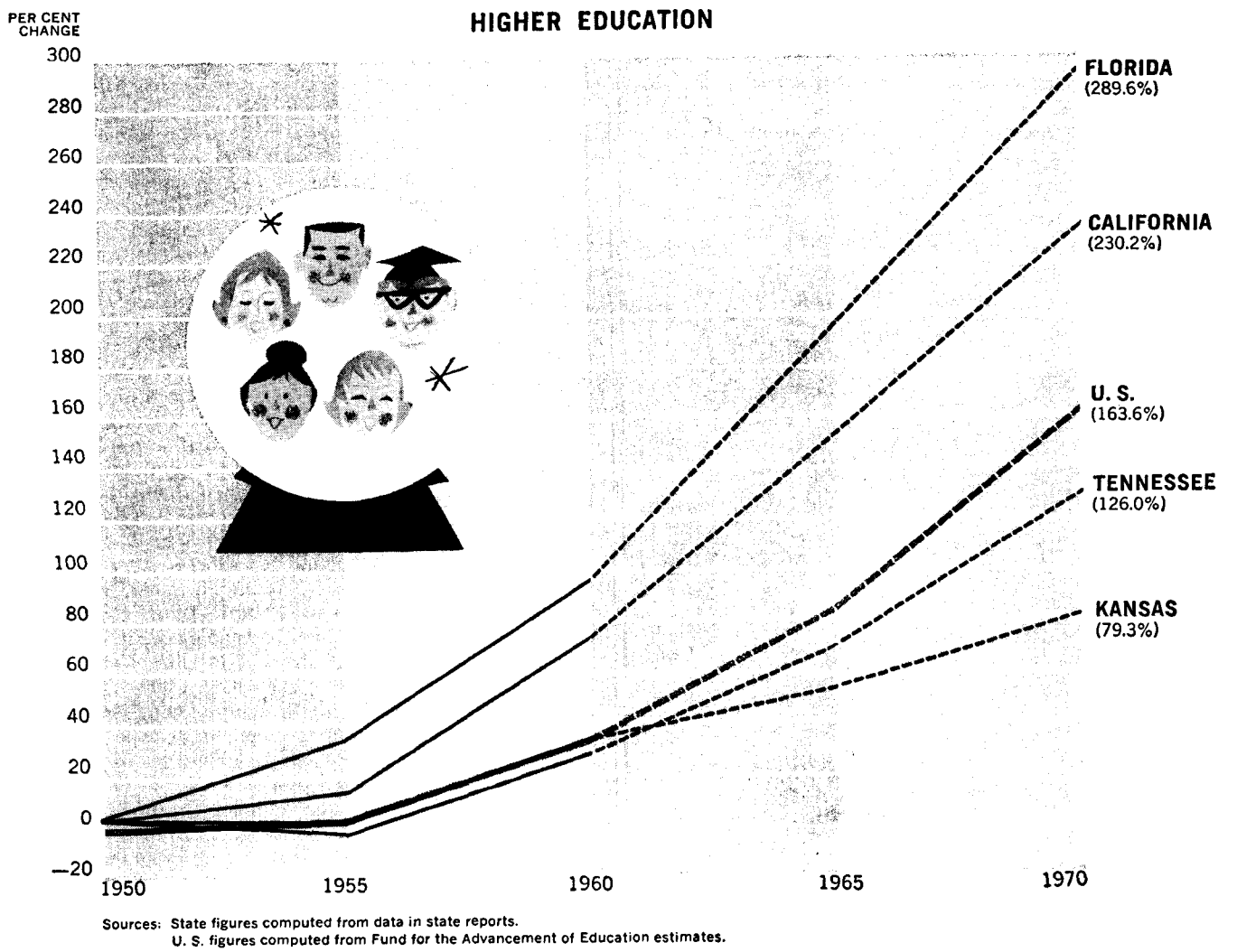
The Massachusetts report notes that "all national experience stresses that community college education is a special problem and a special challenge in itself, combining as it does liberal arts courses, vocational courses, and adult education," and recommends the establishment of a new and independent state Board of Regional Community Colleges to handle their affairs.

State support for two-year colleges based in and controlled by the community varies widely from state to state. Nearly all depend heavily on local support with some help from other sources.

In New York the state supplies one-third of current expenses and one-half of capital expenditures. Nevertheless, the New York report recommends a

(*Continued on page* 98)

Typical Enrollment Predictions



Sources: State figures computed from data in state reports.
U. S. figures computed from Fund for the Advancement of Education estimates.

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The New Alumnus

By JUDITH-ELLEN BROWN,
Assistant Director of Public Relations, University of Rochester.

SINCE the Twenties the stereotype of the college alumnus all too frequently has been that of the rumpus-raising, hip-flask-toting "old grad" who comes back to the campus only for football games and demands that the coach be fired if the game is lost. This image—strengthened by John Held's cartoons and Fitzgerald's novels—took such firm hold that many old grads came to believe that this was what an alumnus *ought* to be like, at least, on Alumni Day.

Today the image is changing, and it's about time. Chances are the typical graduate retains a lively interest in the Big Game, but his relationship with Alma Mater and his activities on her behalf have a new and somewhat more mature look than that of yesteryear. Indeed, today's alumnus is likely to be involved in a year-round program that finds him interviewing admissions candidates for his college, serving on its annual fund drive, and returning to the campus for alumni-sponsored seminars on world peace and other weighty topics.

The scope and intensity of alumni programs vary considerably. Some alumni activities—fund-raising, for example—are, of course, nearly universal. Today's money-raising drives, however, not only embrace the annual fund appeal, but, particularly among women graduates, are also likely to include such projects as selling tulip bulbs (Sweet Briar), conducting house-and-garden benefit tours (Smith), and running used-book sales (Vassar) to aid needy students, raise faculty salaries, build new libraries. Their dollar impact: some $200 million annually.

Talent-scouting for desirable admissions candidates is another traditional alumni function and one that, despite today's abundance of would-be freshmen, continues unabated. But there's a difference. Today's alumnus works closely with his institution's admissions officers in evaluating the merits of individual candidates and briefing local schools on admissions requirements, curriculum changes, scholarships, and so on. Usually he is "prepped" by admissions and alumni staffers; almost invariably he is armed with catalogues, "view books," and other literature.

Increasingly, regional alumni clubs perform a variety of admissions services. Some clubs visit schools and interview prospective students. Some sponsor dinners at which school officials can meet with admissions people. Some invite promising teen-agers and their parents to social affairs where they can talk with admissions representatives. At Worcester Polytechnic Institute, alumni-sponsored programs bring principals and guidance directors to the campus—along with alumni—for special conferences and a first-hand look at the institution.

The most striking development in alumni programs, however, is the dramatic surge in activities designed to nourish—or, in some cases, revive—the intellectual interests of graduates. Although some cynics have labeled such programs a gimmick to boost financial support from old grads, there is considerable evidence that today's alumni not only welcome—but themselves usually provide the impetus for—such programs of continuing education.

Educational programs tailored to alumni needs and interests had their beginnings early in this century. At first they consisted largely of reading courses; Yale actually experimented with the idea of granting a Master of Arts degree in connection with a three-year reading course. The reading list continued to be the reigning mode of alumni education until the advent in 1924 of Vassar's Alumnae House and its development as a study center for Vassar alumnae and their friends. In 1929 Lafayette College coined the phrase "Alumni College"—a term now widely (and rather loosely) used to designate short courses, seminars, and other educational programs for alumni.

Such programs may consist of a single event, a weekly or monthly series, an intensive two or three-day conference, or even an extended in-residence program, such as the month-long seminar of liberal studies conducted by the University of Wisconsin's Extension Division.

A stand-out success story is that of the Yale Alumni Seminar, which was initiated in 1957. When the four-day program was announced, its organizers hoped for a few dozen enrollments. Two weeks and 1,000 applications later, the committee hung out the SRO sign—and prepared to cope with irate alumni who couldn't get in.

Such programs are on the rise. Last fall, for example, University of Rochester alumni completely revised their annual Homecoming program and combined it with a three-day University Convocation, "Perspectives on Peace,"

"I can't decide whether to go to the orgy or listen to Socrates."

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coinciding with the fiftieth anniversary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Attendance zoomed. One event—a three-hour seminar on "Peace and the Emerging Societies"—was scheduled for 9 A.M. and despite the hour, drew an audience of several hundred. A late afternoon panel discussion on "Communications and the Cause of Peace" (featuring Edward R. Murrow, Francis Willis, U. S. Ambassador to Norway, and George Kistiakowsky, Presidential Assistant for Science and Technology), packed some 1,100 alumni, students, faculty, and friends into Strong Auditorium and necessitated the use of closed-circuit television to accommodate those who had to be turned away.

Less dramatic but perhaps equally important is the contribution being made by today's alumni publications. Alumni editors have learned that they do *not* have a captive audience, that they must compete for reader attention with the best of the country's "serious" magazines. Many have made a spirited effort to boost the intellectual level of their publications, some (Johns Hopkins, Barnard, St. John's, Emory) with conspicuous success. And recently Columbia University launched the Columbia University Forum, a "quarterly of fact and opinion," that can hold its own with any "think" magazine in the business.

Alumni editors say their publications have—or can have—significant impact outside the alumni orbit. As an example, they cite a 1957 series of articles, "The Future of the State of Iowa," which appeared in Iowa State's alumni publication. This hard-hitting analysis of regional problems sparked a let's-do-something-about-it movement that propelled the university's alumni secretary into a state-wide barnstorming tour and resulted in the appointment by the Governor of a 100-man Commission on Economic and Social Trends—with the alumni secretary among its officers.

To these evidences of the "new seriousness," college and university officials should be—and usually are—responsive and encouraging. Most of them welcome the responsibility to help their alumni continue to grow intellectually, even if they are not always sure just how far and how fast their institutions should go in sponsoring such ventures.

Obviously, both alumni and institution have much to gain from these manifestations of a close, continuing, and progressively more adult relationship. Thus, on both sides of the Campus Curtain, the "new seriousness" of today's alumni is a welcome new look indeed—and one that, to educator and old grad alike, keeps looking better all the time.

To Be Serious Is Not to Be Solemn

By FRANK G. JENNINGS

IT IS about time that we caught ourselves up short and asked ourselves some old-fashioned and impertinent questions. Education is a serious business; without it we are no better than the ants. But education is a means only, never the end for which we strive. We talk about the Good Life, we commission commissions to spell out our guiding principles. We enunciate our National Purposes. We celebrate our Abiding Values, and all the while children trudge off to school, rugged boys gleefully batter each other on the playing fields of autumn, pretty girls lift apple-red knees to the blatant off-key horns of eager bands, and kindergartens bloom across the land.

We used to be told that school days were the happiest times of our lives, and we believed it. Now we ask little children to sit with us in the solemn councils of the mighty and deliberate about educational efficacies. We beseech adolescents to understand that they are the last, best hope we have. We abjure the tots to consider that life is hard and uncertain—and they listen to us, and nobody laughs.

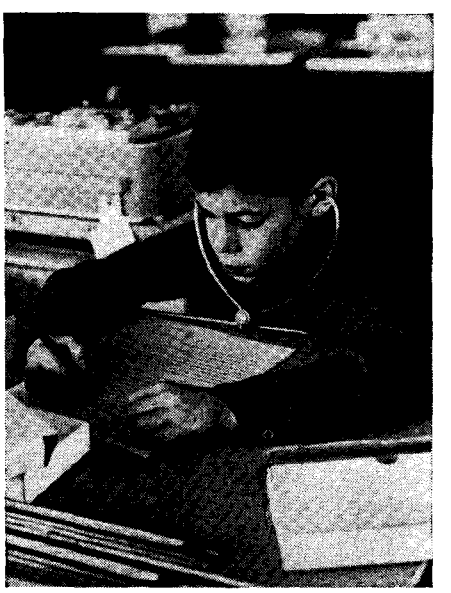
It is about time that we put a stop to this. We must not threaten children with adulthood. Tomorrow is an insurance agent, ready to dun us for the next premium, always promising an increased benefit on the unpaid balance. Tomorrow is adventure and frontier and horizon, but it is bought with thousands of days and almost as many nights. Tomorrow is another kind of beginning, like all the first days of school rolled into one. It is the ever-recurring, always elusive promise of what can happen when school is done—and this we know.

School will keep, there is no doubt about it. It has been keeping since long before a peptic old scribe whipped his charges into reluctant attention by the banks of the ancient Nile. We fall short of fond perfection but we seek and find more than we have had.

In a hundred thousand classrooms across this land, children of all ages are quickening to the pulse of the new-born year. They have already had enough adventures to have founded little knots of friendship among them. There have been the usual report-card terrors, and the shattering disasters of misplaced homework. There have been the armed truces between teacher-ogres and the wily babes in our pedagogical woodlands, and out of the truces, the terrors, and the disasters, some things have been learned. And in the learning, these things were found to be good.

School is a part of life. Learning is a kind of work, and work is as serious as play. The magic of the universe melts before simple explanation, and commonplace things become as wonderful as sunrise. Words go together in strange new ways, and in the going they make new music. Numbers jump out of the rubbish heaps of addition with a life and a law of their own. Place names on maps make tom-tom sounds and rivers trace cartoons across the landscape. The buzz and boom of the far-off world suddenly becomes part of a great orchestra. Stars stand still and planets pirouette and leaf-mould nourishes the unborn spring—and this we understand.

FOR this is education, profoundly serious but never solemn. This is our world, working, growing, and changing as we change it. We change it with finger-paints and puppets. We change it with ordered thought. We change it with tamed atoms—and we change it with the gifts of love that we buy in school.



"Learning is a kind of work, and work is as serious as play."

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J. W. Edgar of Texas

By Richard M. Morehead

THE importance of the state commissioner of education varies greatly from state to state. In some states he plays a vital part in upholding standards, improving educational quality, and molding the educational patterns in all the schools; in others he does little more than collect statistics and disburse state funds. The difference results in part from constitutional and legislative provisions and in part from the weakness or strength of the man who holds the office.

James Winfred Edgar, commissioner of education in Texas, is one of the strong ones; he has done much to strengthen the office that he holds. In 1949, when he was superintendent of schools in Austin, Edgar served on a state-wide committee of educators and laymen which helped frame the Gilmer-Aiken Law that reorganized education in the state and provided financing by which every school-age child in Texas could attend school for nine months annually in a standard twelve-grade system. He was literally drafted to become State Commissioner of Education the following year.

Since 1950 Texas has moved a long way toward the elimination of weak or dormant school districts through consolidation and has provided education of a higher quality for the surviving districts. In-service training has been provided for teachers and school administrators following a "do-it-yourself" system of professionally-directed workshops and conferences; teacher training and recruitment have been accelerated through a program of televised instruction tied to courses available at near-by colleges. Hundreds of teachers—said by their administrators to be of above-average ability—have been recruited in this manner. And a revamping of the entire public school curriculum, which is now under way, has for its objective "finding the highest quality program possible" and applying it in Texas.

Mr. Edgar, a modest man, would be the last person to claim credit for all these improvements. Yet those who have seen him at work are convinced that his part has been an important one. While quietly keeping in motion a continuing study of Texas educational needs and proposed solutions, Edgar and his staff have attracted national attention in other ways. One is the "early college" program for talented high school students that was started at the University of Texas in 1956. Twenty-eight high school students, each with at least a year to go before college, took a college course in chemistry. They made such splendid records that the program was broadened in 1957 to send students to five Texas colleges. The National Science Foundation has now taken over sponsorship of this program, and it has won nation-wide success.

J. W. Edgar—"a modest man."

Colleges of education in Texas now require a maximum of approximately one year in professional subjects; students devote the remainder of their four college years to the liberal arts and to the subjects they will teach. Previously, some colleges required future teachers to devote a much larger proportion of their time to education courses.

The first students graduated under the new certification program in 1959. A survey of superintendents in the spring of 1960, indicated that 71 per cent considered teachers educated under the new program superior to beginning teachers of former years. Only 3 per cent of the superintendents thought the new teachers were less competent than those of previous years.

Edgar has had nearly fifty years of experience as a pupil, teacher, and administrator of Texas schools. He was born in 1904 in the Central Texas ranching-farming hamlet of Briggs. His first teaching job was at Lake Victor School in Lampasas County, where he taught all subjects in grades five, six, and seven. In 1929 he became an administrator in Mirando City, in South Texas, and later was superintendent at Victoria and Orange. Along the way he picked up a Ph.D. degree at the University of Texas. When World War II began, the development of shipyards boosted the population of Orange from 10,000 to 75,000, and Edgar's handling of the expansion of the schools brought him to national attention.

In 1947, when R. W. Byram, the school board president of Austin, telephoned Edgar to offer him the job of school superintendent in Austin, Edgar's reply was, "You're faded,"—a remark that any good Texan would understand. Three years later, when the State Board of Education tapped him for the first head of the revamped Texas State School Organization, Edgar was reluctant to leave the Austin superintendency but Robert B. Anderson, then president of the Texas Board of Education and later Secretary of the Treasury under President Eisenhower, prevailed on him to take the job. Ten years later, Anderson described Edgar as belonging to the really "dedicated" class of public servants. "In my judgment," he said, "Dr. Edgar has measured up to the kind of job we believed that he would do when he was elected. This really gives us an opportunity to look at more than ten years of performance, and not judge simply on the basis of what might be expected of one in the future."

ONE of the secrets of Edgar's success in a difficult job is good staff work. Many important responsibilities are delegated to such long-time associates as Lee Wilborn and J. Warren Hitt. Equally important is Edgar's ability to express himself well in speech and writing. Journalism was one of his interests in college and he has developed a gift—indeed almost a passion—for brief and simple expression.

These talents have been of great value to him in the difficult task of adjudicating local disputes over school administration. Next to the internal controversies of a church, nothing stirs so much local sentiment as a school fight. Under Texas law, the commissioner hears the appeals in such disputes, with further review available to the litigants by the state board and the courts. Most of the appeals end with Edgar. He frequently orders both warring factions—usually a superintendent and minority board groups at odds with the majority—to resign and let others take their place. The welfare of the students rather than political dominance of their elders is his guide.

Edgar is a great listener and needs to

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be because some of the disputes presented to him are extremely tedious. He will listen for hours without much comment, then point to an obvious solution in a few words. "A Supreme Court judge couldn't have done a better job," said Dr. O. D. Weeks, a University of Texas professor of government, concerning Edgar's handling of a noted Texas local school fight. "He lowered the boom on both sides." Edgar's advice in that case was for the town to get a new school board and a new superintendent. It did both—and seems to be living happily today.

No less difficult is the desegregation problem. Edgar looks upon this as "seven hundred local problems" rather than just one; and, because the situation differs in each community, he believes it can best be solved by advising local officials about the law and letting them work out the details. Under this framework, 130 of Texas's 700 biracial school districts have abandoned segregation without incident. Others will follow suit either by local acceptance or through legal action, or both.

Edgar sees the Texas educational system as "a local-state partnership." His formula for the administration of the schools under such a partnership is a simple one: Let the people of the community know what needs to be done and show them how to do it. He believes the public schools to be the most important unifying force within any community, and therefore the best agency for promoting the public welfare.

The "community," in Edgar's thinking, usually means a school district but it may be state-wide or even national. He believes that the larger the community, the less likelihood that people will get the kind of schools they want, and the less local participation there will be in public education.

Edgar is a conservative in most matters, but under his sure-handed direction, meeting new conditions with new ideas seems the logical thing to do.

Support for the Superintendent

The board must make every effort to retain a satisfactory superintendent. By the time an administrator has gained an understanding of the complexities of a community and its schools, the board has made a substantial investment in his experience. A well-functioning school system cannot change its superintendent without suffering at least some temporary loss of efficiency.

—From *Boardsmanship*, a Guide for the School Board Member, Stanford University Press, Stanford, California, 1961 edition.

Report Card

"AND EVERYWHERE THAT MARY WENT . . ." The principal of an elementary school in Lakeland, Florida, harassed by a problem that is fairly common in the lower grades, sent home a note to parents: "Our scholarly endeavors to educate children are being hampered by the regular attendance of a variety of canine personnel. Let's face it—we are not qualified to teach them. We respectfully request that they all be withdrawn from school until such time as we can provide a suitable teacher with the special qualifications for meeting their needs."

NOTHING'S SACRED ANY MORE. In order to help offset increased costs in junior and senior high school cafeterias, the board of education in Montclair, New Jersey, recently raised the price of its biggest seller—the peanut butter sandwich.

PHI BETA KAPPA IS THE KEY. A few months ago (*SR*, Oct. 15) we reported in this space that 400 high school students in Norwalk, Connecticut, created a monumental traffic jam by driving their cars to school on opening day. In a community not far away—East Windsor, Connecticut—the school board has come up with a simple solution to the same problem: the only students authorized to use the school parking lot were seniors on the honor roll. Of the seventy-four seniors, only six were on the honor roll, and only three had driver's licenses.

IT'S REALLY VERY SIMPLE. Dr. Herman E. Spivey, vice president of the University of Tennessee, speaking at a recent conference of deans of Southern graduate schools, made a strong plea for the teaching of clear, uncomplicated English prose. As an example of how professional jargon is making it harder and harder for people to understand each other, he cited the case of a lawyer who asked a witness: "Was there, postwar, in your thinking, a degradation in the individual concept of responsibility toward charitable or educational or public welfare contributions?" To which the witness responded: "Do you mean did people give less?"

DEEP STUFF. The George Washington, first U.S. atomic-powered submarine armed with Polaris missiles, is now on an extended operational patrol somewhere in the Atlantic. Under a special arrangement made by the Navy, crew members can use their spare time at sea to take a credit course in "The Anatomy of Revolution," offered by Harvard University.

EXCUSES, EXCUSES! On the final day of registration, the dean of San Diego State College received—and granted—two urgent telephone pleas for permission to register late. One was from a student in jail on a traffic violation, and the other was from a student whose car was marooned in a Colorado snowdrift.

THE ART OF POSITIVE THINKING. Parents in East Grinstead, England, complained recently that their children in the Aston House Preparatory School were being taught "creative lessons" in which they were asked to imagine they were dead.

FRESHMAN ENGLISH. Red Smith, sports columnist for the New York *Herald Tribune* reported that during the halftime intermission in the recent Liberty Bowl football game between Penn State and the University of Oregon, one of the bands marched out onto the field and spelled out, with individual placards: PREETINGS HFROM GILADELPHIA.

THE GAME'S THE THING! The *Times* of London, in a recent educational supplement, printed without comment a news item reporting that students at the University of Notre Dame, angered by eight straight football defeats, demonstrated against their president, the Reverend Theodore Hesburgh, who is noted for his emphasis on academic excellence. The students carried placards saying: DOWN WITH EXCELLENCE.

NO COMMENT. On the day after Election Day, twelve nuns boarded a plane in Chicago, headed for Washington to attend a conference on education. One of them, who had obviously been following developments in the Presidential campaign, was heard to observe to her companion: "My goodness! Some people on this plane will probably think we're moving in already."

—JOHN SCANLON.

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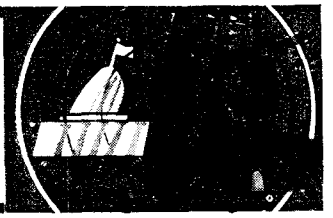
While School Keeps



THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL is a half century old, and it is about to receive some badly needed rejuvenation. The first junior high was established in 1910 in Berkeley, California, and there are nearly 5,000 of them today, but their role and function in the educational hierarchy has remained fuzzy. Part of the trouble lies in the fact that originally they were designed for students who quit after the ninth grade. As terminal schools, they were expected to keep students for one year beyond the traditional eight-year elementary school, and to provide some vocational training.

In the past half-century most states have raised the legal school-leaving age to sixteen or more and the junior high school has come to be viewed as a bridge between the self-contained classroom of the elementary school and the departmentalized high school. It is supposed to introduce students to high school methods and organization while they are still at the grammar school level. But no one seems quite sure whether the junior high is an upward extension of the elementary school or simply a lower-level high school for seventh, eighth, and ninth graders.

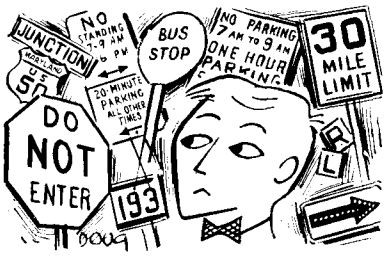
Given the confusion about its nature and responsibilities, it has been difficult to train teachers effectively for the junior high school. Most teachers who end up in this educational no man's land were trained either for the elementary or the high school. And no one has defined very specifically how teaching in the junior high does—or should—differ from either of the other two.

Cornell University hopes to change all this with an eight-year program, now in its second year, to prepare liberal arts graduates specifically for junior high teaching. The experimental program, under the direction of Dr. Mauritz Johnson, professor of secondary education at Cornell, aims to develop a new pattern for teachers in English, social studies, science, and mathematics so that the junior high may become a true bridge from the elementary school, where the basic skills are learned, to high intellectual achievement in the high school. Professor Johnson will have the heartfelt sympathy of parents of twelve-to-fourteen-year-olds, who know at first hand something of the problems he faces.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS that block desegregation in the schools, and what can be done about them, are analyzed with clarity and good sense in a recent pamphlet, "Emotional Aspects of School Desegregation," by the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry (104 East 25th Street, New York 10; 48 pp., 50 cents). This report on one of the nation's top problems by a group of eminent psychiatrists is based on the premise that although desegregation is a legal, social, and economic problem, it is above all a psychological problem. "Were it not for the violent feelings which are involved, it would be possible to solve the legal, economic, and social difficulties," says the report.

The pamphlet offers a concise analysis of the major psychological reasons why individuals and groups oppose integration—in both the North and the South—and then describes the means by which possible changes in attitude may be achieved. A final section explores the effect of desegregation on different groups. The authors have told their story in clear, nontechnical language that gives the layman a surer sense of the depth and the diversity of emotional factors that lead men, both white and Negro, to cling to the vestiges of our nation's "peculiar institution."

DRIVER EDUCATION will be encouraged in New York State schools, but will not be required during regular school hours. In the face of growing demands that driver training be made a requirement for high school graduation, the State Education Department replies that such action would "divert the time, energies, and resources of our schools and their personnel from their efforts to improve instruction in the major fields of learning." New York's state-wide program boasts standards among the highest in the nation, but the department prefers to keep it on a voluntary basis. The state is also encouraging more schools to offer driver training during the summer and to make it available to all students, private, public, and parochial.


JUNCTION
NO STANDING 7-9 AM 3-6 PM
BUS STOP
NO PARKING 7 AM TO 9 AM ONE HOUR PARKING
30 MILE LIMIT
20 MINUTE PARKING ALL OTHER TIMES
DO NOT ENTER
193

UNDERGRADUATES making at least honor grades in their major fields at Harvard, Radcliffe, and MIT are adding a new dimension to public education in the greater Boston area. They are working as voluntary aides in local high school classrooms, where they bring specialized knowledge and talents to supplement the work of the regular teacher.

The Harvard Undergraduate Teachers program—known as HUT—was introduced in 1958 under the aegis of the Harvard Graduate School of Education and is described in the fall issue of the HGSE Association *Bulletin*. But the idea was born in the fertile mind of a Harvard undergraduate, David Goldberg, and the program remains student-sparked and largely student-administered.

Originally it was thought that undergraduates with specialized knowledge could give depth to high school studies by lecturing on subjects in their major fields. Experience showed that there were many other ways in which they could be helpful—by working with advanced groups or individuals in the class, by doing outside research for the teacher, by supervising science labs, by adding new enthusiasm to extracurricular academic clubs, as well as by occasional lecturing.

HUTs are carefully selected and must agree to devote ten hours a week to their voluntary assignments. Every effort is made to avoid burdening the high school teacher with an unofficial student teacher who contributes less than he receives from the program. If a HUT doesn't prove to be a "net asset" to the teacher after a reasonable orientation period he is accounted a failure. But of the more than thirty who have entered the program, only one has been replaced because the teacher did not find him useful.

Two aspects of the program are particularly noteworthy: First, the widespread interest among undergraduates and graduate students in these Ivy League schools far exceeded expectation; second, the very selective choice of candidates and the carefully defined relationship between teacher and HUT has resulted in a high incidence of success.

A similar program for Columbia and Barnard College undergraduates was announced recently. More than 100 volunteered to become "assistant educators" in the elementary and junior high schools of the depressed areas of upper Manhattan. They contribute two or three hours a week to tutoring students in difficult subjects, assisting teachers on field trips to museums and art galleries, and introducing underprivileged children in other ways to the

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pleasures of cultural activity and academic achievement.

The benefits given and received in these programs are reciprocal. Classrooms receive fresh vitality, specialized knowledge, and new enthusiasm from their youthful visitors. Undergraduates receive new insight into the problems and challenges of education and, not infrequently, new interest in teaching as a career.

TOP SCIENCE STUDENTS in high school typically become interested in the field by age twelve or earlier, according to a survey of the more than 250 participants in the Second National Youth Conference on the Atom in Chicago last fall. Sponsored by the electric utility industry, the Future Scientists of America Foundation, and the National Science Teachers Association, the conference brought together students, teachers, and leading scientists from thirty-eight states. Of special interest was the attempt to obtain detailed knowledge about the youthful scholars whose achievements in the field had led to their selection as participants.

Sixty per cent of the group became interested in science between the ages of three and twelve—the overwhelming proportion between ten and twelve—and the interest of another 12 per cent was awakened "very early." The most important influence in arousing the interest of more than 40 per cent of the group was the science teacher—either elementary or high school—and for another 30 per cent it was books. Apparently good teachers and good books are still the most important elements in good education.

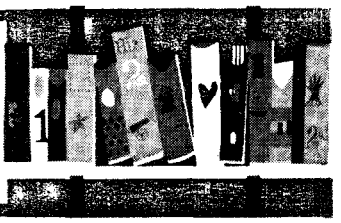
More than half of the group were critical of the educational opportunities afforded by their schools. The principal limitation noted was a lack of advanced courses: languages, calculus, physics, chemistry, and math, in that order. Another criticism: courses given were "too easy." Significantly, lack of lab equipment and poor teachers came far down the students' list.

NEW TEACHER EDUCATION GRADUATES of the University of Michigan fared well in their quest for jobs for the 1959-60 school year, according to the university's placement office. There were ten requests for each new elementary teacher seeking a job and five for each of the secondary school candidates. Salaries ranged from $3,200 to $6,000, with most in the $4,200-to-$4,900 range.

At the high school level, greatest demand was in women's physical education, mathematics, science, special education, speech correction, remedial reading, and home economics. An over-

(*Continued on page* 97)

the Editor's Bookshelf

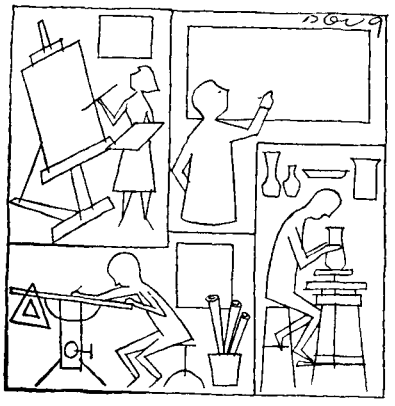


A PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL, according to the stereotype, is one in which children study only when and what they please without formal classes, assignments, or examinations, and in which there are no rules, inhibitions, or discipline. When such a picture is painted, educators indignantly reply that no such school ever existed and that this is not what is meant by progressivism at all. They accuse the writer or speaker of creating a straw man.

It is true that such schools are hard to find in the United States in 1960 but one still flourishes in England and is described in fascinating detail in a new book titled "**Summerhill,**" by A. S. Neill, (Hart, 392 pp., $5.75). It is greatly admired by a considerable number of American psychiatrists, psychologists, anthropologists, educators, writers, and ministers whose names appear on the dust jacket of the book and whose enthusiastic endorsements are included in a leaflet that accompanies it.

A. S. Neill is the seventy-five-year-old headmaster of Summerhill, an independent, coeducational boarding school located in Suffolk, about 100 miles from London. Forty-five boys and girls, ranging in age from six to sixteen, live together in an old mansion under the kindly, nondirective guidance of the headmaster, his wife, and four or five tutors. The tutors must love their work for their pay is only about $300 a year plus board and room.

Freedom is not quite complete at Summerhill, even though the headmaster makes no rules. No one is required to study or wear clothing but if a child should decide to blow a trumpet while others are reading or talking he might be voted down at the weekly General School Meeting attended by all tutors and pupils. The vote of a child of six counts as much as that of the headmaster and, of course, children outnumber the adults but the group is likely to vote against any freedom that infringes upon the freedom of others. Only once in the school's history has the group passed a rule infringing on a purely personal freedom—they voted to prohibit children under twelve from smoking. But the rule was quickly repealed when it was discovered that younger children were smoking in secrecy.



Although clothing is never required, Summerhill has not become a nudist camp. It is reported that girls over nine, and boys of all ages, prefer to wear a little clothing most of the time. Perhaps it's the English climate.

Studies are never required, but if a child wants to learn to read or to study mathematics or history there are classes during the morning hours, or he may go to a tutor and ask for assistance. Many do. A few graduates have succeeded in passing university entrance examinations even though Neill says, "My staff and I have a hearty hatred of all examinations." But one boy spent thirteen years at Summerhill without attending a single class or taking a lesson of any kind. He is now a successful toolmaker.

Mr. Neill is convinced that a child allowed to make his own decisions will learn everything he really needs to know and that required studies only create unnecessary conflicts within the child and between children and adults. He says that Summerhill is the happiest school in the world and reports that children respond well to complete freedom from discipline. We note, however, that when he discusses the financial problems of the school, he mentions, somewhat plaintively, that ". . . damages are heavier in Summerhill than in a disciplined school. Summerhill children are allowed to go through their gangster period, and consequently more furniture is destroyed."

The Summerhill philosophy of child-rearing is far from new. Obviously, it stems from Rousseau by way of Freud. Neill starts with the Rousseauan view that the child is inherently good and any adult influence during his formative years is more likely to corrupt than to improve him. The parent should see that the child is properly fed and

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then get out of the way so that he can develop naturally.

Neill then proceeds to the hypothesis that sexual frustration at any age is both damaging and unnecessary and that much or all of the war, crime, hatred, and neurosis in the world is the result of childhood conflict and frustration. He believes that all discipline and adult control of the child inevitably is frustrating and that all school subjects, courses, assignments, and standards—if required by adults—are likely to warp the child's emotional development. (This is not quite the way we read Freud but it is the way Mr. Neill reads him.)

Each reader must decide for himself just how much of this is profound truth and how much is sentimental nonsense—philosophers, psychologists, and psychiatrists have long disagreed among themselves and there are no "authoritative" answers. Anthropologists, in their studies of primitive societies, have never found the idyllic "man in his natural state" that Rousseau hypothesized. Most psychologists agree that frustration can lead to aggression and that childhood conflicts are important determiners of personality but many of them are convinced that Freud overstated his case for the overriding importance of *sexual* conflicts in early childhood.

American readers will probably be less shocked than some of Summerhill's British visitors by the facts that children there learn about sex at an early age, occasionally neglect to wear clothing, and are permitted to do openly some of the things that children everywhere do in secret. They will find it easy to admire Mr. Neill for his warm, humane approach to child-rearing and for the courage he has shown in clinging to his convictions in the face of opposition and ridicule.

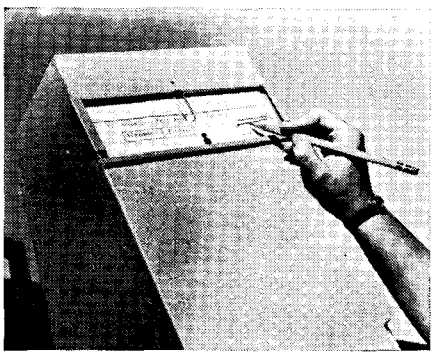
We are sympathetic with the view of one of Neill's admirers who says, "His is a great experiment, and I believe in experiments." Still, after reading this report of the forty-year experiment at Summerhill we aren't quite ready to recommend the school as a model for the American public school, or indeed for any school anywhere. For one thing, we question the wisdom of taking children from their parents at the age of six and placing them in a boarding school, and many of the unique features of Neill's school would be totally inappropriate in a day school from which children return to their homes in the middle of the afternoon.

Quite apart from this objection, we are much less certain than Mr. Neill that children of tender years are always better able than adults to decide for themselves what they should study and how their time should be employed. It is true that a child learns best that which interests him but a good teacher can quickly lead a normal child to be interested in almost any subject within his range of comprehension. It is true that frustration leads to aggression but we cannot agree that required courses, examinations, and standards, when properly applied, need to be frustrating in this sense. We think it entirely possible for a good teacher to teach reading and such subjects as literature, history, geography, and mathematics, and for the school to require them of all except the slowest learners, without doing any harm to a child's psychological adjustment. Indeed we can think of nothing *more* frustrating to a child living in our world than the inability to read.

We doubt that children want, or can profit from, complete freedom from adult control; it is our impression that young children feel more secure when they know what the limits of acceptable behavior are and that they would rather have these limits indicated by adults than by other children. We are frankly puzzled to find that several reputable psychologists have endorsed Neill's book without one word of criticism.

And we must admit that our views have been influenced by the "Report of the British Government Inspectors," who, after a sympathetic report of the virtues of Summerhill, admitted, "On the whole the results of this system are unimpressive. It is true that the children work with a will and an interest that is most impressive, but their achievements are rather meager."

A TEACHING MACHINE is a device that presents a series of problems or questions to the learner and then tells him immediately whether each response is correct before moving on to the next item. The simplest machine looks like a small cash register. A question appears in a window with four or five possible answers. The student selects the answer he thinks is correct and presses the corresponding lever. If his response is correct a new question appears; if it is wrong he must continue to make new responses until he gets the right one. A card may appear in the window to tell him why his answer is wrong.



Grolier Teaching Machine

Some of these machines – which might more accurately be called "self-teaching devices"—are much more complicated and require the student to write out his answer, after which the correct answer appears for comparison with his own. The sequence of questions may be prepared in such a way that each new one builds upon what has already been learned, so that the child may begin with little or no knowledge of a subject and end with a thorough grasp of it.

Critics of the machine see it as a horrible monster that will replace the teacher and dehumanize learning. Those who have used it call such fears neurotic and point out that the automatic washing machine has not replaced the housewife—it merely enables her to do one part of her work more easily and effectively. The teaching machine, they believe, will give the live teacher more time for discussion of the more profound aspects of the subject. It also allows each student to proceed at his own best pace. One psychologist has pointed out that a teaching machine has some of the traits of an ideal teacher; for one thing, it has infinite patience—if you get the wrong answer the machine does not scold or threaten but neither does it tolerate error. It just sits there and looks back at you until you get it right.

The first good popular book on teaching machines is yet to be written, but for anyone willing to plow through a collection of research reports to get the facts, a new book, **"Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning,"** edited by A. A. Lumsdaine and Robert Glaser (NEA, Washington, D.C., 724 pp., $7.50), provides a great deal of important information. It is by far the most comprehensive book on the subject now available and includes some new material as well as abstracts of articles that have appeared in professional journals over the years. Some of the more interesting chapters are by Professor Sydney L. Pressey, of Ohio State, who invented the teaching machine in 1924.

It has been said that it takes fifty years for a new idea in education to reach the classrooms. Thirty-six years have already elapsed since Pressey's work clearly demonstrated that children can learn many things more quickly and easily with teaching machines than in conventional ways. This gives us fourteen years to go. —P.W.

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BOOK REVIEW

Conflict in Connecticut

"The School Bus Law, A Case Study in Education, Religion, and Politics," by Theodore Powell *(Wesleyan University Press, 334 pp., $5), analyzes a state-wide conflict over one of education's most explosive issues. James Cass, formerly Research Director for the National Citizens Council for Better Schools, is a member of the Education Supplement's editorial staff.*

By James Cass

WHEN sticky issues of religion and education are raised in a community, most people prefer to ignore them in the vain hope that they will go away. Catholics, as a traditional minority, want to avoid new and divisive conflicts. Protestants and Jews, sensitive to contemporary attitudes toward equality for all creeds and races, hesitate to expose themselves to the charge of "anti-Catholic," all too often hurled with more vigor than discrimination.

Yet the Catholic community in our historically Protestant nation continues to grow in size and influence. Inevitably, as its power increases, it challenges traditional attitudes and practices, sometimes with abrasive effect. The issues that emerge are broadly social and political in their implications, but, as with segregation, they often find their focus in the schools.

What happens in a community or state when issues of church and school erupt into open conflict is dissected in fascinating detail in Theodore Powell's "The School Bus Law." Mr. Powell, public information consultant to the Connecticut State Board of Education, takes as his laboratory the state-wide conflict over a 1957 proposal that the Legislature authorize local communities to provide transportation for nonpublic-school students at public expense.

Some local communities in the state had been providing transportation for parochial school pupils for years; others had refused to do so; many were looking to the state for a policy to guide local action. The debate, as it moved from individual communities to the state legislature, was long and bitter. It revolved around the "child benefit" theory of welfare services to children and the interpretation of the constitutional "wall of separation" between church and state.

Catholics argued that welfare services such as the school milk and school lunch programs, health services, and bus transportation were benefits to the child rather than to the school or its sponsoring institution; therefore, it was constitutional for the community to provide them at public expense. The Supreme Court had agreed.

Protestants based their argument on a strict interpretation of the traditional concept of church and state separation, the decision of the Supreme Court notwithstanding. Bus transportation of parochial school students might benefit the children primarily, they said, but it still relieved the school—and thereby the Church—of one area of financial responsibility and so represented a subsidy to a religious denomination. Protestants also argued that transportation was merely a "wedge" that would later be driven deeper into the public coffers.

But neither side in the debate, which split the state on religious lines, was logical or consistent. Here is Dr. Powell's analysis of the Protestant position:

> Although the separation principle was employed by the Protestants to oppose auxiliary services for Catholic schools, it was almost never interpreted as prohibiting the use of public schools for the promotion of religion. Protestant school board members in High Hills opposed transportation for Catholic school pupils but made church attendance a condition of employment for their superintendent of schools. Protestants on the Castleton school board viewed dental services at public expense for parochial school pupils as a violation of church-state separation but voted in favor of the distribution of Gideon Bibles in the public schools. They could invoke simultaneously the principle of separation against Catholic aspirations and the principle of cooperation in support of Protestant desires.

The Catholic position was equally inconsistent.

The social revolution that had basically altered the composition of the body politic in Connecticut was finally coming to the surface. The bitterness that divided the state along religious lines cut far deeper than the simple issue of bus transportation for parochial school children. Protestants, who for generations had taken their majority-group status for granted, were being seriously challenged. The Catholics, only half aware that they were a minority group, nevertheless attacked with vigor. It was a struggle not only for principle, but for political power.

The absence of Christian forbearance is especially notable since the leadership on both sides was provided by the clergy, Protestant and Catholic. Professional educational organizations in the state stood aside while the issue was being decided. Civic organizations avoided the issue. The Jewish community, despite a long history of support for a strict interpretation of separation of church and state, saw no future in becoming involved in what shaped up as a Protestant-Catholic imbroglio. Only the politicians could not avoid the struggle, for it was their responsibility to fashion public policy from the confused issues as they emerged from the debate. And it was they, rather than the clergy, according to Dr. Powell, who displayed the Christian qualities of forbearance, moderation, respect for conscience, and a spirit of brotherhood.

THE most important lessons to be learned from "The School Bus Law" are, first, that the complex issues of religion and education are not going to go away—they will be very much with us in the years ahead; and, second, that such profoundly human issues are not likely to be resolved either by pure logic or by strict law. The Connecticut law was a compromise that passed the decision—and the conflict—back to the local communities.

Dr. Powell does not draw on the wealth of information he compiled in his study to speculate on how the issue of church and state in education should be resolved, or even how the bitter divisiveness of religious conflict might be avoided. We can hope that he will do so in the future. But his volume does demonstrate clearly that all of our traditional American genius for accommodation of widely differing points of view will be needed if we are to avoid disastrous conflict. Perhaps the best measure of the complexity of the issue is the fact that another analysis of Connecticut's struggle, written by a Catholic scholar who was equally thorough and objective, would tell quite a different story.

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President Kennedy's Task Force on Education Makes Its Report

Just before this edition of the Education Supplement went to press, President John F. Kennedy's Task Force on Education submitted to him a report containing legislative recommendations that, if carried out, would greatly alter the Federal Government's role in American education and would have far-reaching effects on the nation's educational enterprise. Chairman of the Committee was Frederick L. Hovde, president of Purdue University. Other members were Alvin C. Eurich, vice president and director of the Fund for the Advancement of Education; John W. Gardner, president of the Carnegie Corporation; Francis Keppel, dean of the Graduate School of Education at Harvard University; Russell I. Thackrey, executive secretary of the American Association of Land Grant Colleges and State Universities; and Benjamin C. Willis, general superintendent of schools in Chicago, who is president-elect of the American Association of School Administrators and chairman of the influential Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. A summary of their legislative recommendations is presented below.

I. *Federal Support for the Public School System*

The national interest demands a first-rate system of schools and that every child have full opportunity to benefit from that system. Present standards and facilities must be improved. Millions of children, particularly in certain rural areas and in the great cities, are deprived of an opportunity to develop talents that are needed both for society and for their own lives. The Task Force Committee concludes that first priority should be given to a vigorous program to lift the schools to a new level of excellence.

State and local governments alone cannot provide the funds needed. Federal support is required. The Task Force Committee recommends that action be taken in three closely related areas: a general program of support for *all* public schools to reach the new level; a special program for states in economic distress in providing for schools; and a special program for city schools.

The Task Force Committee recommends that the President support legislation to provide $30 per annum per pupil, based on average daily attendance in public schools. The funds should be sent to the states for transmission to local Boards of Education. . . . The Boards of Education should be authorized to use the funds for construction, salaries, or other purposes related to the improvement of education. The program should require state and local governments to maintain or increase their support of education. The annual cost is estimated at $1.2 billion.

The Task Force Committee recommends that the President support legislation designed to provide $20 per child for states with personal income per student in average daily attendance in public schools that is below 70 per cent of the national average. The legislation should include provision to assure maintenance of state and local effort, and funds should be available for construction, salaries, or other purposes related to the improvement of education in the public schools, as the states may determine. It is estimated that roughly one-quarter of the states might benefit from the legislation (mostly in the South), that approximately 7,000,000 children would be helped toward full educational opportunity, and that the annual cost would be $140 million.

The Task Force Committee recommends that the President support legislation designed to provide an amount equivalent to $20 per child in average daily attendance in the public schools of the great cities (over 300,000 population) which are facing unique and grave educational problems. The legislation should authorize the United States Commissioner of Education to make grants to such cities based upon plans proposed by their Boards of Education or by the Boards together with other Boards of Education within their area, for support of research and experimental programs in the special problems of these urban schools, for the planning and construction of facilities, for the acquisition of land sites, for the improvement of programs of community service by the schools, and for the strengthening of guidance and job placement programs for pupils over sixteen years of age. . . . Provisions to assure maintenance of local effort should be included, as well as coordination with Federal and local housing agencies. It is estimated that the education of approximately 6,000,000 children can be improved at a cost of $120 million annually.

II. *Federal Support for Colleges and Universities*

1. Grant and Loan Program for Academic Facilities:

. . . In order to give urgently needed aid to colleges and universities (including junior colleges) to accommodate a million new students in the next five years, Congress should be urged to enact legislation providing for a combined program of loans and grants of at least $500 million for the first year, of which $350 million (70 per cent) should be for matching grants and $150 million (30 per cent) for loans on the same basis as the college housing program. In succeeding years this program will require increasing sums annually to meet the evolving needs. Grants should be available only for construction which will accommodate *increased* numbers of students.

2. College Housing Loan Program:

This program has been outstandingly successful in its ten years of operation. It has suffered in uncertainty and needs to be put on a basis which will permit colleges and universities to plan ahead. The Task Force Commit-

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tee therefore recommends that (a) the President ask Congress for an immediate increase in loan authorizations of $150 million to take care of anticipated additional needs for the fiscal years ending 30 June 1961 and (b) the President ask Congress to increase the loan authorization by $1.4 billion over a four-year period, with $350 million of the new authorization available as of 1 July each year, beginning in 1961.

III. *Strengthening of the National Defense Education Act*

. . . In general the programs under the various titles have been effective and, with some modifications, the authority for them should be extended for five years.

Because of the critical shortage of teachers at all levels, highest priority should be given to enlarging the national fellowship program in order to attract able people into elementary and secondary, as well as college, teaching. New sources of supply should be tapped, such as college graduates, particularly women with lessened family responsibilities who did not specifically train to be teachers, retired military and other professional personnel. In addition, fellowships should be available to teachers in service so that they might increase their effectiveness.

The loan funds for college students should be increased and supplemented with a guaranteed loan program from private funds. The forgiveness feature, now applicable only to public school teachers, should be extended to all teachers. Furthermore, the student disclaimer affidavit which so many institutions find objectionable should be eliminated.

With the extensive experimentation which has been done throughout the country in the more effective use of newer means of communication in the schools, another phase should now be entered and assistance given through federal support of the states and regions in constructing educational television networks.

After three years of experience in granting aid to the states to develop better means of identifying students with outstanding aptitudes and encouraging them to complete their high school education, the time has come to review carefully the work that has been done and to look to the planning of programs that provide more thorough preparation for vocational and academic counselors.

Through such actions (as recommended above) provision for better education through the schools and colleges can be accelerated with the result of a gain in national strength.

New Books

BOARDSMANSHIP: A Guide for the School Board Member. *1961 edition. Edited by H. Thomas James. Stanford University Press.* 102 *pp.* $3. A guide to the structure of school boards and the way they function in the community, for new school board members, parents, and interested citizens, prepared under the direction of the California School Boards Association.

DANIEL COIT GILMAN AND THE PROTEAN Ph. D. The Shaping of American Graduate Education. *By Francesco Cordasco. E. J. Brill, Leiden, Netherlands.* 160 *pp. Cloth* $4.80. *Paperback* $4. *(Available in U.S. from Stecher & Hafner, Inc.)* Biography of the president of the Johns Hopkins University, under whom that institution profoundly influenced the development of graduate education in the U.S.

FROM ADOLESCENT TO ADULT. *By Percival M. Symonds with Arthur R. Jensen. Columbia University Press.* 413 *pp.* $8.75. Follow-up case studies of twenty-eight adults originally studied by Professor Symonds as adolescents in his 1949 work, "Adolescent Fantasy."

THE CAMPUS AND THE PEOPLE. Organization, Support and Control of Higher Education in the United States in the Nineteen Sixties. *By M. M. Chambers. The Interstate Publishers.* 75 *pp. Paperback.* $1.80. A professor of higher education at the University of Michigan takes a look at the burgeoning problems of our colleges and universities and concludes that "Higher education is a public obligation because society as a whole is its principal beneficiary."

ADULT EXPERIENCE AND COLLEGE DEGREES. A Report of the Experimental Degree Project for Adults at Brooklyn College, 1954-58. *By Bernard H. Stern and Ellswerth Missall. Western Reserve University Press. Paperback.* 249 *pp.* $2.50. Report on a liberal arts program leading to a degree for adults which is based primarily upon knowledge and achievement rather than mere credit accumulation.

TAXES FOR THE SCHOOLS. *By Roger A. Freeman. Institute for Social Science Research.* 441 *pp.* $5. A study of the tax structure and the support of education by the author of the controversial "School Needs in the Decade Ahead."

(Advertisement)

What are we teaching young people about the presidency?

by
JOHN H. HAEFNER

Professor of Social Studies Education, State University of Iowa, coauthor of OUR LIVING GOVERNMENT*

Inauguration Day is a good time to ask what ideas we are giving young people about the presidency. Are they aware of the development of the office, the functions of the presidency, the importance of being informed about the responsibilities of the man who holds this office?

If you have a high-school senior using *Our Living Government*, you might be interested in reading the entire chapter on The Presidency, in addition to the excerpts quoted here:

"The duties of the President of the United States, his powers, and his decisions make him one of the most important figures on the world scene.

"The executive branch of our government is a complicated mixture of the *President* as a man and a personality and of the presidency as an institution. The institution is not an impersonal one, for the office of President is occupied by a human being. The effect of the man on the institution and its effect on him may be great indeed.

"Presidential powers are derived from the Constitution, from acts of Congress, and from precedent. The attitudes of the public and its representatives toward the office of the presidency at any one time have their effect.

"Like all institutions, the presidency changes as conditions change. Today it is much different from what it was in the days of Washington or Pierce. We—the people—expect much from the office of the presidency and from the man who holds it."

It might be a good idea to discuss not just the man but also the office of the presidency with your soon-to-be-a-voter son or daughter.

*OUR LIVING GOVERNMENT
High-School Text for the
Senior Course in American Government
By Haefner, Bruce, and Carr
679 pages, $5.20

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Why We Disagree

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seded by tomorrow's science as today's superseded yesterday's. The classroom teacher, especially, should always test psychological theory and supposition against her own observation and her own common sense. If she does this she may find some serious flaws in child-development theories based on educational psychology. She may, for example, discover through her own experience and observation that it is a mistake to elevate the theory of "readiness" into a hard and fast dogma; she may discover that most children are more eager and ready for learning—especially in the field of reading—than modern theorists sometimes give them credit for.

This difference between two schools of educational thought might be stated this way: the advocate of basic education is much less ready than the modern educator to accept the dictum that "science has spoken, let no man open his mouth," much less ready to genuflect at mention of the word "research" and to assume that it has produced final proof and that debate can end. He is inclined to agree with the elder Oliver Wendell Holmes, who said: "Science is a good piece of furniture for a man to have in an upper chamber provided he has common sense on the ground floor."

Another basis for conflict is the divergent viewpoints held about professionalism by advocates of basic education on the one hand and by many educators on the other. Two quotations suggest the problem here. The first is taken from some remarks made shortly after Sputnik by G. Robert Koopman, associate state superintendent of public instruction in Michigan, as quoted in the magazine *The Nation's Schools:*

> Recent cataclysmic events have brought forth many hysterical reactions. Personally, I have faith that in the last analysis citizens will rely upon child psychologists, professional educators, and their own common sense rather than on the advice of specialists in other fields who suddenly fancy themselves to be child psychologists and curriculum specialists.

The other quotation is taken from a statement issued last September by six professional education groups in California in which they protested the conclusions of a survey of the San Francisco schools made by eight academicians from the University of California and Stanford University. Said the educators:

> . . . When a small group of university professors, or any group with limited, special interests, attempts to determine the public school program best fitted to serve all youth, it is clearly outside the field in which it has special competence.

If one understands the implications of these two quotations it is that those who have not been subject to pedagogical training are incompetent to judge the curriculum or the products of schools. A group of professors of history, mathematics, and English, in other words, are outside their "special competence" when they try to judge, as did the surveyors in San Francisco, the school program in history, mathematics, and English. Apparently, the person with a mediocre or inferior general education but with plenty of credits in administration or child psychology is better able to judge the curriculum and to guide teachers than is the well-educated person who happens not to have

taken the courses in administration and psychology. The theory that a man who is an authority in classroom ventilation or the dimensions of school cafeterias or who has majored in physical education is better equipped to lead teachers in teaching history or English, than is a professional historian or college teacher of English, is one that is thoroughly repugnant to the advocates of basic education.

THE educational profession would do well to cease building up a mystique of professionalism. It would do well to stop making the analogy between the professional educator and the medical doctor and assuming that the layman or the academic scholar is unable to judge the efficacy of its prescriptions. This is essentially a false analogy. A physician, Dr. Coles W. Richmond, writing a few months ago in the Louisville *Courier-Journal,* had this to say on this subject:

> People do question their doctors continually, to their faces, by telephone, by day and by night. They also change doctors with great frequency and will continue to do so until medicine becomes socialized. They evaluate the results of the care given and draw conclusions. These conclusions are often unflattering to the doctors and loudly expressed. By contrast, we cannot change from one school to another, except in rare instances. The educators, quite properly, ask for more and more tax money, while they point to the medical profession as an excuse for refusing to discuss the details of our children's education. I believe the defense establishment is the only public institution which is both tax-supported and under security wraps—except, apparently, our schools.

In addition to this tendency to fence off professionalism, to make it out of bounds to the uninitiated, there are other reasons to be unhappy with present conceptions of professionalism in education. There seems to be an allergy to criticism among professionals which, until very recently, has prompted many of them to describe all critics of education as "enemies of the public schools"; and has made them notably uncritical within their own ranks. Other conditions within the profession, such as coercive membership in state and national educational organizations, and the undue concern of these organizations with matters of tenure and salaries, leave many persons with the impression that these organizations are looking for a bigger and better union card rather than for genuine professional status.

ONE would hope not to be misunderstood here. The ultimate responsibility for running schools rests, of course, with the professional staff. Parents cannot run schools, alumni cannot run colleges, and the college professor is not necessarily equipped to teach elementary school arithmetic. But we must not exaggerate these truisms into a doctrine of untouchability, and be unwilling to subject the public schools to the scrutiny of intelligent and informed outside opinion.

There is another, and final, difference which in some ways is perhaps the most important of all the differences between the two schools of educational thought. This involves the question of who is capable of being educated.

"Education for all American youth" has become a catch phrase which we are apt to accept at face value, but when we attempt to learn precisely what it means it often turns out that

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those who use the phrase have a double-edged meaning in mind. Very often it means education for those who can take it, and some kind of substitute, or synthetic product, for those who presumably can't take it. One of the reasons for the rise of the "life-adjustment" movement was the general skepticism of many educators about the native ability of most American young people and the consequent necessity for finding a substitute for the traditional program of academic studies. The original Life Adjustment Commission estimated that 60 per cent of our high school population is incapable of either further academic training or vocational training for skilled occupations.

IT IS not, of course, only professional educators who have reservations about the ability of the majority to take education. James Bryant Conant seems to think that only 15 per cent, or at the most 20 per cent, can profit from a rigorous academic program. Many representatives of the liberal arts, unfortunately, feel the same way about it. Albert Jay Nock, who wrote very perceptively and eloquently about the "Great Tradition" in education, thought that it was beyond most people. He thought that only about 1 per cent are capable of absorbing genuine education and that the rest are "subhuman" and thus not educable. He was also fond of quoting the great democrat, Thomas Jefferson, as advocating a system of competitive schools that would weed out what he—Jefferson—rather undemocratically called "the rubbish."

Advocates of basic education are opposed to the now popular ideas that the humane and liberal studies are for a minority only and that the majority must be content with courses designed to provide them with what Mr. Conant calls "marketable skills." Speaking for this point of view, the Council for Basic Education "believes that all students, excepting those few whose intellectual equipment is clearly too limited, can benefit from sound instruction in the basic academic studies."

This, of course, is a statement of faith rather than of empirical truth. The Council may be mistaken about the capacity of the majority to absorb education or may be just sentimentally hopeful. But where is the experimental evidence which shows that the majority, properly motivated and proceeding at a proper pace, cannot benefit from exposure to the intellectual disciplines? One is inclined to agree with Athelstan Spilhaus of the University of Minnesota when he says: "It is the slowest students who must especially be counseled to stick with the fundamental studies. . . . The system of side-tracking slower pupils or late maturers into vocational pursuits too early is one calculated to increase inequalities in education beyond those that are bound to exist by differences of natural ability."

Until evidence to the contrary is in, common sense as well as the necessities of national survival suggest that we ought not to accept too readily the current low estimate of the abilities of American boys and girls. If one of the objects of education is to provide young people with some inner resources that will enable them to move through life with some discrimination, then surely we want to provide a liberal education for as many as possible. And looking at the matter from the viewpoint of the necessity in these days for intelligent citizenship, one is reminded of a statement made by Robert M. Hutchins: "If we can only educate 15 per cent in a way anybody would recognize as education, then we ought to reconsider universal suffrage."

Perhaps the greatest problem in American education today is how to provide for the great average majority, for the estimated 65 per cent who fall in the so-called normal, or average, range of intelligence—how to provide for these some sort of genuine education, not simply some form of adjustment or training but how to provide something that will feed and nourish minds.

WHILE one can understand why the educator who must deal with this problem daily in the classroom sometimes gets discouraged, one cannot understand why anyone who makes education a career can possibly disagree with the idea that this is the noblest task of those who cater to young people in schools.

These are some of the things about which there are profound differences of viewpoint in education: differences about the validity of some psychological theories; about the meaning of professionalism; and above all, about who is capable of being educated. My principal reason for recounting them is that I fear there is a tendency today—now that basic education threatens to become fashionable—to pretend that these very fundamental differences do not exist, or can easily be resolved; in short, to give the impression that critics and criticized are brothers under the skin. If we are ever to resolve our problems in American education, we must face frankly our basic philosophical divisions, and debate and discuss them rather than suppress them, or pretend they do not exist.

While School Keeps

Continued from page 91

supply was reported in men's physical education, social studies, and history.

ENGLISH TEACHING in the schools and colleges is subjected to critical appraisal again this month in "The National Interest and the Teaching of English," a publication of the National Council of Teachers of English. Subtitled "A Report on the Status of the Profession," it is not only a report to the profession, but in many respects a report to the nation.

Acknowledging that national concern about the deficiencies of English instruction has become almost commonplace, the report points out some of the more striking reasons:

> Two-thirds of the colleges do not require future elementary teachers to complete more than five semester hours of work in reading and language arts at the elementary level.
>
> Only 41 per cent of the colleges require prospective [high school] teachers of English to complete a course in advanced composition.
>
> More time is spent in methods courses [for high school teachers] on the teaching of literature than on the teaching of grammar and the teaching of composition combined.
>
> Ten million elementary and about 150,000 high school students attend schools which lack central libraries.
>
> The average annual amount per pupil spent on library books is about half the estimated cost of one book.
>
> Almost two-thirds of American colleges offer remedial work in English, although most colleges do not grant college credit for completing such work.

Recommendations for improvement include standard prescriptions for better-trained teachers, lower teaching load, and more writing assignments for students. They also include demands for greater emphasis on functional grammar, courses that balance instruction in literature and composition about evenly, and more adequate library facilities.

OVERSEAS SCHOOLS for the children of the more than 1,500,000 Americans working and living abroad present special educational problems not usually encountered at home. The armed services provide for more than 100,000 children in military dependents' schools, mostly in NATO countries, and some others have good local schools available. About another 100 schools enroll

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20,000 to 30,000 American children in Asia, Africa, and Europe.

Facing problems that dwarf the familiar difficulties of educational institutions at home, the overseas school is often a triumph of human ingenuity and determination. A report on this little-known facet of American education was recently issued by the International Schools Foundation (2000 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.), "The Overseas School in Asia, Africa, Europe." Based on questionnaire responses from sixty-six schools and visits by a survey team to forty-three schools in twenty-seven countries, the report sheds new light on America's increasingly important overseas educational effort.

HIGHER EDUCATION must assume a new and expanding role as an instrument of national policy, according to "The University and World Affairs," a recently published report of a top-level, nine-man committee created by the Ford Foundation at the request of the Department of State. Although it speaks directly to the nation's universities, the committee adds that its recommendations are "only somewhat less important for American colleges."

As the committee sees it, our universities "have a responsibility, in the best university tradition, to make a contribution which no other institutions can: to enlarge our horizons as a free society, to help educate the leaders and help build the educational foundations of the newer nations, and to cooperate with educational institutions in other nations in order to help create a free international society." Manifestly the committee had in mind the need for knowledge and understanding of world affairs by all self-governing Americans, the special needs of "overseas Americans" often ill-prepared to work and live abroad, the numbers of foreign students flocking to our colleges and universities, the many requests by newer nations for aid in setting up their own educational institutions, and the crying need for more cooperative action among institutions of higher learning throughout the free world.

The committee makes numerous recommendations addressed to the universities and colleges, to the Federal Government, to foundations, and to private enterprise. The report (available free from the Ford Foundation, 477 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York), will be read with particular interest for its recommendations that Congress and the Executive give greater emphasis and support to higher education, because one of the nine members of the committee is Dean Rusk, new U.S. Secretary of State. —JAMES CASS.

Higher Education

Continued from page 85

substantial increase in state support because rapid expansion of the community college system would place too great a burden on local property taxes needed to support public schools.

Many states are looking to the two-year college for relief from the pressure of growing demands for higher education. Others will follow their lead in the near future. As the Michigan report says, "The leaders of higher education are almost unanimously agreed that the development of additional community colleges should be encouraged."

Admissions

THE PROBLEM of who should be admitted to college is more acute for public colleges and universities than for private, although the latter have their troubles, too. In an era of rising demand for higher education, many private institutions are beginning to question whether simply raising academic requirements is an adequate way to select a student body. But the problem facing public colleges is much more difficult.

Eleven states require by law that their public colleges accept all applicants from within the state who have earned a high school diploma. Ten other states do so as a matter of policy even though the law does not demand it.

The tradition of open admission to state colleges developed in a day when the high school diploma represented a better-defined level of academic achievement than is generally true today. But even in the past, many state institutions counted on selecting their students *during* their first year rather than before admission. A high freshman attrition rate served the same purpose as high entrance standards and allowed public colleges and universities to maintain a level of academic excellence comparable to that in private institutions. But such a policy is expensive and sometimes damaging to the many students who fail. Some states are beginning to question its soundness.

Washington traditionally requires public colleges to admit all high school graduates, but the report on higher education in the state recommends that each college and university "refine its selection techniques, so that it admits those students who can produce some evidence that they have a reasonable probability of attaining the degree." The report assumes that the junior college will keep the door to higher education open for the less able students and will operate "on a policy of selective retention rather than one of selective admissions"; that is, it accepts anyone with a high school diploma, "but retains in a program only those who demonstrate the ability and motivation to perform at an acceptable level."

Florida, which does not require its state colleges to accept resident high school graduates unselectively, is nevertheless concerned about the student attrition rate in its institutions of higher learning: "The enrollment of students who cannot be expected to succeed in the programs of an institution is expensive both to the institution and to the individual, and steps should be taken to reduce the number of such enrollments." The report recommends "guided admissions" that will help students to take a realistic view of education

ADMISSION POLICY IN PUBLIC COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

States requiring by law that all high school graduates be admitted:

Colorado	Louisiana	North Dakota	West Virginia
Idaho	Missouri	Ohio	Wyoming
Kansas	Montana	Washington	

States admitting all high school graduates as a matter of policy rather than law:

Alaska	Indiana	Texas
Alabama	Maryland	Utah
Illinois	Nevada	Wisconsin
	Oregon	

SOURCE: R. Grann Lloyd, "Admission Policy in State-Supported Higher Education," *School and Society*, November 19, 1960. Data for his study was collected by Professor Lloyd from state attorneys general and high educational officials.

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beyond the high school and channel those who cannot benefit from a college education into other appropriate post-high school programs.

The California Report recommends the most carefully detailed admissions policy of all the states surveyed. Responsibilities for accommodating students in public institutions of higher learning are carefully laid out. The junior colleges will admit all graduates of California high schools who apply. The state colleges will admit only students who rank in the upper one-third of all graduates of public high schools in the state. The University of California will admit only students who rank in the upper 12½ per cent of all public high school graduates. In addition, the colleges and university may admit transfer students who have demonstrated their capacity in other institutions.

Student Migration

AS THE COMPETITION grows for admission to colleges and universities, out-of-state students are finding the going rougher. Public institutions are already imposing tighter restrictions on nonresident students and private colleges just won't be able to expand fast enough to meet the demand. But students in some states will feel the pinch more than those in others.

Kansas reports that its colleges and universities receive about 1,500 more students from out-of-state than leave the state for higher education. Michigan reports approximately the same number of students coming from and going to other states. But Tennessee, looking to the years ahead, reports that "It is becoming increasingly difficult for Tennessee youth to gain admittance to most private colleges and out-of-state public colleges."

New Jersey clearly illustrates the problem some states face. The number of its high school graduates seeking higher education is above the national average, and 57 per cent attend colleges and universities outside the state. But a survey of the out-of-state colleges and universities receiving many of its students indicates that their facilities are going to expand more slowly than the student population.

The New York report notes that that state, too, has for years sent more undergraduate students to colleges and universities outside the state than it received from other states. About 26 per cent now go out-of-state, but by 1985, according to the report, this figure will have dropped to 15 per cent, because "in the future other states can be expected to absorb a smaller proportion of New York students than in the past."

All the indications are that "deficit" states are going to have to make better provision for their own students in the future.

Tuition Costs in Public Colleges

PUBLIC COLLEGES and universities traditionally have charged no tuition, or have kept it very low, for residents of the state. In recent years, however, pressure has mounted to shift a greater share of the financial burden of these institutions to the student. In Oregon, for instance, the public higher institutions today charge fees ranging from $219 per year in the colleges of education to $603 in the medical school —about two and a half times the amount charged twenty years ago.

The question of how much tuition, if any, should be charged was asked in several of the state reports as they looked ahead to 1970. Tennessee concluded that "The policy of not depending heavily upon student fees as a source of income should be continued." Illinois recommended an extensive program of state scholarships that could be used in any institution, public or private, to relieve some of the pressure on public colleges and universities, and still make higher education accessible to all who could benefit from it.

California has never charged tuition to residents of the state attending public higher education institutions. (Nonresidents are charged $127.50 per semester in the state colleges and $250 at the university.) Modest incidental fees are charged to all. The California report strongly recommends that the traditional state policy be continued, but it also recommends that students pay fees large enough to cover the operating costs of services not directly related to instruction.

In New York, some state-supported institutions charge tuition, others do not. In some schools day students attend tuition-free, but evening students taking the same courses must pay. The New York report recommends a uniform tuition charge of $300 a year for all undergraduate students at public colleges and universities including the Colleges of the City of New York, which are not part of the State University but do receive support from the state. The report also proposes, however, that "tuition rebates be given automatically to all C average or better students from families with incomes of less than $5,000 a year (as shown by state income tax returns) and to other hardship cases." Although the $300 represents only a fraction of the actual cost of student instruction, the proposal has aroused strong opposition — especially from students and alumni of the city Colleges, which have a long tuition-free tradition.

Percentage of Students in Public and Private Institutions by Region

Region	Public	Private
New England	27.8	72.2
Mideast	32.2	67.8
Great Lakes	59.7	40.3
Plains	63.9	36.1
Southeast	65.5	34.5
Southwest	77.6	22.4
Rocky Mountain	76.3	23.7
Far West	80.9	19.1
Alaska & Hawaii	93.2	6.8

Source: U.S. Office of Education

State Aid to Private Colleges and Universities

THERE IS WIDE DIVERSITY among the reports in their approach to the controversial question of state aid to private colleges and universities. The reports from most of the states where private institutions already play an important role in higher education urge that these institutions expand to accept a proportionate share of the increase in enrollments due in the 1960s and 1970s, but they recognize that the raising of money to finance such expansion will be a major problem. Some recommend direct or indirect state aid to the private institutions, others back away from the question, and still others oppose such action.

The strongest recommendation for state aid is contained in the New York report, which devotes an entire chapter to the role of private institutions in the total higher education picture. The report notes that ". . . the bulwark of higher education in New York State for many years has been our private colleges and universities, and the great tradition of meeting the need for higher education through a combination of private and public institutions must be preserved for the future." The report then goes on to recommend a program of direct aid to private colleges and universities, even those with religious affiliations. This aid would take the form of a per capita grant to each institution for each student graduated with a degree approved by the Board of Regents, except divinity degrees. The aid would be in an amount no greater than a small fraction of the total cost of educating each student; it would vary with the level of the degree, since education at advanced levels is more expensive than at lower levels; and it would be formally provided to the institution under the terms of a contract drawn

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in accordance with the appropriation made by the Legislature.

The three-man committee that framed the New York report clearly recognizes that a state-aid program of the type it proposes "will be a new development in the United States," but goes on to observe that in Pennsylvania and in many countries throughout the world "the trend is toward some measure of governmental assistance to enable private colleges and universities to remain in existence."

The committee also confesses that there might be some question of the constitutionality of the proposal, particularly with respect to sectarian institutions. "The issue has never been decided specifically by the courts," the report observes, "and we are informed that views as to its potential constitutionality are speculative."

The Minnesota report also takes a positive stand on the question of state aid to private colleges and universities, but it does not go as far as the New York report. Rather, it recommends that the State Legislature authorize a revolving fund that would be made available for loans "at suitable interest rates" to private institutions of higher learning "to assist them in providing essential additions to plant facilities when such loans are not available from other sources." It also proposes further study to determine whether direct loans to college students would be desirable.

Several of the reports, including those from Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Missouri, recommend state-financed programs of scholarships and student loans, with the provision that the proceeds can be used at private as well as public colleges and universities. On this point, the Illinois report observes that winners of state-financed scholarships "would, in many cases, choose to attend a private institution and thus relieve the strain on the public ones." It then goes on to observe that "the cost to the state of providing such scholarships would be less than that of providing additional facilities in its own institutions."

In five of the reports there is no mention of the question of direct or indirect state aid to private colleges and universities. Several other reports, including those from Florida and Washington, express specific opposition to the idea of state aid. The framers of the Florida report recommend "that private interests be urged to provide necessary financial support for private and church-related institutions to enable them to continue to serve a substantial proportion of the students in Florida, but that the general pattern of using public money for the operation of private institutions should not be developed at this time." The Washington report recommends that expansion of scholarship opportunities should take place within the framework of such existing programs as the National Merit Scholarship program, and adds that "a state-financed scholarship, loan, or gift fund is not the most desirable solution to the financial problem" of the private colleges and universities.

Tax Dollars for Higher Education

Tax dollars furnished by state and local governments for teaching students in colleges and universities and providing scholarships, in selected states.

State	Amount Per Capita	Percentage of Personal Income
California	$15.17	0.6%
Michigan	11.82	.5
Iowa	10.29	.6
Minnesota	10.12	.5
Indiana	8.55	.4
Illinois	8.08	.3
Wisconsin	7.65	.4
Texas	7.61	.4
New York	5.41	.2
North Carolina	5.18	.4
Missouri	5.12	.3
Connecticut	5.08	.2
Ohio	4.44	.2
Pennsylvania	3.32	.2
New Jersey	3.15	.1
Massachusetts	2.39	.1

Current Funds Only—1957-58 (Adapted from the New York Report)

Faculty Shortages

ALMOST EVERY REPORT comments on the fact that the problem of attracting and retaining a sufficient number of fully qualified faculty members has become increasingly difficult in recent years, and is likely to become even more difficult in the years ahead. Industrial and governmental demands for highly trained personnel, they point out, have been increasing more rapidly than the number of graduates with master's or doctor's degrees necessary to meet these demands. The rapid expansion of enrollments at the college level will further intensify the competion for faculty members.

Says the Minnesota report: "Some colleges are beginning to find it impossible to obtain and keep enough qualified faculty to permit the use of present instructional procedures requiring a low student-faculty ratio."

The Pennsylvania report, prepared in 1957, notes tersely: "The shortage of faculty will be a problem by 1960, and will become acute by 1965, more so by 1970."

The Missouri report is extremely pessimistic on this point. "By 1973," it says, "if we have been successful in our construction programs and we have added the extra capacity to meet enrollment demand for the [greater St. Louis] area, we believe that 2,350 more teachers will be required than were employed in 1958-59. Where are these teachers to come from?"

The Kansas report also views the faculty shortage as serious, and, on the basis of a careful study of faculty losses by public and private colleges and universities in the state during the five-year period 1954-55 through 1958-59, has this to say about the problem: "The seriousness of faculty losses comes with terrific impact when it is recognized that a total number equivalent to one of each two faculty members now in Kansas institutions has been employed to replace a permanent faculty member who resigned within the past five years. In other words, during that brief span, there has been about a 50 per cent turnover in the permanent faculty. It is very difficult to see how any organizaiton—be it business, government, industry, or education—can operate effectively if it loses half of its permanent professional and managerial personnel in five years. Education is no exception."

Various recommendations are made in the reports for doing something about the problem of attracting and holding qualified faculty members. The most common recommendation is to raise faculty salaries to the point where they would be competitive with salaries in other professions. A few of the reports, however, also touch on another aspect of the problem of meeting the shortage —namely, making more effective use of the faculty already available. Some of these proposals are discussed below.

Changes in Teaching Methods

IN RECOGNITION of the fact that raising salaries will not be enough to solve the faculty-shortage problem completely, several reports recommend various steps that colleges and universities can take toward more efficient utilization of the teachers they now have.

The Minnesota report notes that the university expects to make more efficient use of its faculty and its building space through such means as enlarging the size of certain lecture classes where sizable numbers of students are already enrolled; by using auditoriums rather than small lecture halls; by constant use of all pupil stations in laboratories, shops, studios, and classrooms; by scheduling classes more evenly throughout the day and week, beginning in the early morning and continuing well into the evening and through Saturday; and

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by encouraging students to work on their own, without the direct guidance of a faculty member, through the development of bibliographies, study guides, and similar instructional materials. The report also says: "Ways in which technological developments might also facilitate more effective use of faculty and building space must not be overlooked." In this connection it points out that "One new educational development which offers considerable promise in helping to alleviate the shortage of qualified teachers, in reducing somewhat the pressure upon classroom space, and in contributing to the growing need for adult education and technical extension services, is educational television."

Noting that one educational television station began to serve the area surrounding the Twin Cities in 1957, the report recommends experimentation with educational television in some more remote and basically rural part of the state. "Such a move," says the report, "would envisage at some later date the possibility of a state-wide educational network where each station could serve the needs of its own area and at the same time provide for interchange of programs." As a first step in this direction, the report recommends that the State Legislature authorize and appropriate funds for the erection and operation of one educational television station at an appropriate point in the state to cover an area not served by existing and contemplated educational television facilities.

The New York report also takes note of the possibilities of television as a means of improving the quality of instruction, and recommends that the opportunity for college-level education in New York State be expanded by the establishment of a state-wide system of educational television.

The Choice that Lies Ahead

The concluding statement of the New York report poses the alternatives between which all states must choose: "We now face an unprecedented rise in college and university enrollments—a rise so dramatic that it will substantially alter the shape of our higher educational system. . . . The state can follow either of two courses. It can yield reluctantly and tardily to the enrollment pressures, patching the system here and there, fighting off public discontent (of which there will be plenty) and hoping that the problem will solve itself. Or it can assume the position of leadership that becomes a great state. It can build for the future with vigor and determination. . . . We recommend the latter course."

Stanton

Continued from page 46

is free to give out information; it is not free to take in information. With regard to access to information of the highest importance, journalism is slave to a hodgepodge of whims, archaic codes, and restrictive—even punitive—conditions. . . . During the last ten years, the very decade of democracy's greatest trial in adjusting its institutions to an age whose events move with the speed of light, we have seen more novel restraints on the right to know than ever before in our history. What is even more alarming is that we have witnessed the rise of equally novel concepts of the role of information in a free society.

"These concepts have taken many forms. One of them would enslave free journalism as a mere tool of diplomacy, to be used at the convenience of the government for some short-range purpose without regard to the long-range damage that may result. Another with which we have all become familiar is the release or withholding of information as a strategic factor in winning a skirmish over the budget on Capitol Hill. A third and even more cynical is the use of information for political ends—holding important information until it will serve a political purpose to release it, and then releasing only that part which is politically useful. . . . The truth is that secrecy has become obsolete.

"Democratic action and responsibility in this country are cast in partial paralysis by a government that practises inadequate disclosure. Ironically, the first casualty of such a paralysis is the very leadership that tolerates secrecy. The vitality and force of leadership in a democracy spring from the people's making demands upon that leadership in response to the facts known to them. Without facts, there are no demands. Without demands, there is no leadership."

Consistent with this concern for freedom was Dr. Stanton's crusade to modify Section 315 of the Federal Communications Act, the controversial provision that requires broadcasting stations to give equal time to all candidates for public office. This provision had hamstrung the ability of broadcasters to interview candidates and to present news of their views and activities, because an interview with one major candidate of a major party exposed the networks to the obligation to give the same treatment to all candidates regardless of their importance or seriousness of purpose.

Dr. Stanton, with the strong support of newspapers and magazines, of the broadcasting industry, and of President Eisenhower, spearheaded a successful drive a year ago to persuade Congress to modify section 315 by abrogating the "equal time" requirement for newscasts, news interviews, news coverage, and news documentaries. But the restriction was not lifted for the direct presentation of candidates on broadcast media for the purpose of expounding their views.

In other words, a modern television version of the Lincoln-Douglas debates for the major Presidential candidates was still impossible even after Congress's corrective measures.

Dr. Stanton first urged such a debate in 1952 without success. In 1956 he offered free time for such a debate, but Section 315 made it impossible without Congressional sanction and that sanction was not forthcoming. Last August, however, his tireless stomping of the land on this issue finally prevailed when, with the endorsement of both Vice President Nixon and Senator Kennedy, the provision was suspended for the 1960 campaign. The result was the "Great Debates," all aired free as a public service by the three networks.

As part of his commitment to the responsible use of broadcasting's powers to inform, CBS is now devoting some two hours a week of prime evening time to news, special events, and documentary programs of the highest order. The enthusiastic creators of these programs regard themselves as Don Quixotes, out to slay such dragons as the violent and vulgar "entertainment" programs with which they compete on other networks and to prove that a reality program can attract more viewers than an established Western. This latter feat they have already achieved.

In his struggle to harness broadcasting to the strengthening of human values in America and to achieving that informed public which democracy must have in order to survive, Dr. Stanton has consistently fulfilled the new image of the businessman-citizen in our changing, constantly challenged society. *Saturday Review* regards it as particularly appropriate that President Eisenhower, in writing by coincidence of Dr. Stanton's contributions on the anniversary of the Battles of Lexington and Concord—a day when "we remember . . . those who secured our independence and those who continue to defend the freedoms of us all"—commented, "In this company of patriots, Frank Stanton has fought long and effectively."—William D. Patterson.

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Personal History

Continued from page 72

the conduct of the Civil War, in the shaping of reconstruction and the defeating of Lincoln's moderate plans, in the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, and in the struggle for emancipation.

I would be glad if the author had offered us more of his own reaction to Sumner. Professor Donald has given us a superb piece of scholarship: a portrait through the historian's telephoto lens. To give his work equal stature as biography he must, I think, be willing to shake hands with his subject.

BACK HOME AGAIN: It is quite plain in **"God's Oddling"** (McGraw-Hill, $4.95), another mélange of reminiscences of hill life in Kentucky, that Jesse Stuart has in mind as the titled character his father, Mitch Stuart, for he traces, in a series of incidents, the life of Mitch from the time of his early fatherhood on the Little Sandy to the day of his death in W-Hollow country, made familiar by Stuart's other books. Most of this one is taken up with incidents, such as mule trading and feuding, planting and harvesting, that illustrate Mitch Stuart's exhausting life.

The book, one feels, is at once an indictment of today's social security society and an almost poetic elegy to Stuart's clan—hard-working, hard-fighting, hard-drinking, religious people, fiercely honest, frighteningly industrious, with a poignant smell of humanity about them.

"God's Oddling" is hard to put down, not because of any strong thread of narrative (it is merely strung together) or because of any obvious organization of biographical detail, but merely because each incident grips the reader with a sense of immediacy and import, as if the writing were not done with a typewriter, but with a stub of Kentucky sassafras or sumac—a compulsive piece that Stuart had to spew out.

Whatever verdict is rendered on Stuart as a writer (and so far he has achieved success, both critically and popularly), that verdict must necessarily take "God's Oddling" into consideration, for this *is* Jesse, as much as or more so than it is Mitch Stuart: one sees Mitch through Jesse's boyish, youthful, and mannish eyes; one sees the beholder more clearly than the subject of his beholding. Jesse follows his father through the meager coal mines of Greenup County, the infertile fields of W-Hollow, the tiny towns of Kentucky's hills, and we have a touching portrait of an almost medieval existence in a dimly remembered America of the Twenties and Thirties.

—Roland Dickison.

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SWEDISH MASSAGE AND EXERCISES: Feel rejuvenated and strong! SIGWARD STUDIOS (Lic. #291987), 139 West 54th Street, CIrcle 5-9886 NYC after 11 A.M.

MEN'S CLUBS, SISTERHOODS, SYNAGOGUES: Provably successful original musical comedy, 2 hours, 20 songs. For script, music, details, write Box R-175.

POEMS, DRAWINGS creatively printed. Gifts 'n Things, Cos Cob, Connecticut.

COLLABORATOR WANTED. JUVENILES. Skilled, witty, humorous! Professionals preferred. Box R-177.

MACK SENNETT Slapstick Comedies, including Chaplin and Keystone Kops, may be rented or purchased from Film Classic, 1977 South Vermont Avenue, Los Angeles 7, California.

(Continued on page 104)

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PERSONALS

(Continued from page 103)

BRYN MAWR, SMITH, June graduates desire governess positions with families traveling abroad. Speak Italian, French; experienced, responsible, references. Box R-170.

MAN—RETIRED TEACHER—some editing, proof-reading experience, wants free lance, part-time work. New York area. Box R-165.

KARATE: Authentic Black Belt. Develop your hidden power. SIGWARD ACADEMY, 139 West 54th Street, NYC after 11 A.M.

OLD MAPS, HERALDRY, PRINTS. Catalogue 10¢. L. S. Straight, 271 East 10th Street, New York.

JON BIDDLE, 16, wants summer job. June 15th through September 15th anywhere. Moderate pay, best references. Box R-172.

TECHNOLOGIST/HUMANIST—Imminent Chemical Engineering Ph.D. seeks position applying scientific viewpoints to broader problems. Box R-190.

RETIRED LIBRARIAN will accept part-time or short-term assignment. Skilled researcher. Can write. Box R-188.

WELLESLEY JUNIOR, four summers' experience on Continent, desires position, tutor or governess, in family summering abroad. Speaks German. Box R-192.

ACTOR, 32, wants announcing job, stimulating city, TV or classical FM. Go anywhere to audition. Box R-191.

HOUSES AVAILABLE

For Sale

MEXICO CITY: Owner reluctantly leaving Mexico and sun-flooded estate adjacent American college and schools; overlooks city and snow-capped volcanoes; 20 minutes from business district; 4 bedrooms, 3½ baths, 22' x 35' living room (fireplace), library (fireplace), large family room (fireplace), dining room, fully tiled kitchen, laundry, snack bar, servants' quarters; double garage, half acre walled landscaped garden; three brick terraces, orchidarium, peacocks; separate guest studio with bath. Price $60,000. Available immediately. Telephone Elmendorf, 20-77-56 or write Box R-164.

$1,500 DOWN, 6 room Colonial, beamed ceiling, baseboard heat. $10,000. Rheinstrom, Hillsdale, New York.

For Rent—Furnished

ISLAND INTRIGUE: Want a different vacation away from it all? The lure of the Islands awaits you. Collect rare sea shells, fish in tropical waters, swim. Exotic beauty in the Gulf of Mexico. Waterfront cottages, Kitchenette Apartments, Rooms, Pool, Restaurant, Television, Free Boats. Rates from $51.00 week for two. For brochure write MITCHELL'S CASTAWAYS, Sanibel Island, Florida.

For Summer Rental

NEW HAMPSHIRE COTTAGE for rent for season only—June 1st through September 15th. Every artist or writer dreams of escaping the noisy world and finding some remote corner where he can lose himself in his work—A delightful home, nestling amidst a wealth of pines and foliage—all conveniences, fireplace, telephone, screened porch facing live lake, private sandy beach and boat, delicious mineral water. Convenient to town. Children welcome! $2,000 for season. Box R-132.

PROPERTY FOR SALE

LOTS OF IMAGINATION and plenty of money, $25,000, for charming barn on 2 country acres in Greenwich, Connecticut. NOrmandy 1-6478.

APARTMENTS TO SHARE

BROOKLYN HEIGHTS. Spacious, livable, convenient. Cultivated man. $100. Box R-171.

CAMPS

THE ROCK. Enriched program: spelunking, creative writing, cryptology, tennis, riding, canoe sailing, art, music, dramatics; discussions, extended trips. Staff openings, opportunity for couple. Robert Williams, Williamsburg, RFD, Massachusetts. Write for camp magazine.

POK-O-MOONSHINE, 57th season. 400 acres on Adirondack Lake. For boys who want real camping. Also tutoring. Catalogue. Col. and Mrs. H. T. Swan, North Tarrytown, New York.

VACATIONS

BLUEBERRY HILL! Winter! Lucullan food. Nothing whatever to do. Brandon, Vermont.

HOTEL PLAYA MAZATLAN, directly on beautiful beach, tropical setting. Excellent international cuisine, best in Mexico. $15.60 double occupancy, American Plan. Mazatlan, Sinaloa, Mexico.

GREEN SHADOWS INN, OLD LYME, Connecticut. Open all year.

ALL-EXPENSE SKI WEEKEND at Shayne's, Highmount, New York, $29.50, including 1 Bar Lift. For Reservations phone JUdson 2-3777 NYC.

THE MANOR in Asheville, North Carolina, welcomes creative people. Pleasing rates, beautiful surroundings.

IN FT. LAUDERDALE, take FRENCH LEAVE. Efficiencies, bedroom apartments. TV. Pool. Public beach. Free Color Brochure. Write: FRENCH LEAVE, 4228 Ocean Drive, Ft. Lauderdale, Florida.

SAN FRANCISCO ON A BUDGET? Charming, centrally located. Hotel Beresford, 635 Sutter Street.

OFF-THE-BEATEN-TRACK nearby resorts. Call LOrraine 8-0700 NYC.

CLOSEST SKI LODGE to Big Bromley—is the intimate Bromley Mt. Sugar House, Peru, Vermont. Walk or ski to the lifts, no parking problems. Wonderful, substantial family-style meals. Lodging $8-$10 includes breakfast, dinner and free set-ups. Open year-round. We meet buses at Manchester Center, Vermont. Accommodate 14. Children welcome. Call Al and Helen MacConnach. Phone South Londonderry, Vermont, VAlley 4-5460.

TENNIS: For the devotee, on sun-drenched FLORIDA KEYS. Oceanfront living facilities nearby. ISLAMORADA: Telephone MAtecumbe 4914. Hawthorne Bissell.

OUR COTTAGE, Water Isle, St. Thomas, Virgin Islands. Furnished, modern electrical conveniences. Sandy beaches, fishing, sailing, perfect climate. $150 weekly for two; $25 each additional person. March 12th on. Box R-189.

TRAVEL

NO TELESCOPIC SIGHTS NEEDED to capture lions and myriad other wild game in your camera lens! South Africa's Kruger Park and other game reserves will keep your shutter clicking at really close range. Tour in comfort by rail, highway, air everywhere in South Africa and adjacent areas. Write for beautifully illustrated literature. SATOUR, Dept. S, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20.

SAVE MONEY ON YOUR NEXT TRIP to New York. New York is inexpensive if you don't insist on running with the herd. Stay at the Hotel Paris and use our folder: "New York for Free." All rooms with bath; free swimming pool; family rates. Write to M.L. Walter, Hotel Paris, New York 25.

WILDERNESS TRIPS—hiking or riding—year around activities at moderate prices. WAMPLER TRAIL TRIPS, Box 45, Berkeley 1, California.

TRAVEL

WHEN A MAN IS TIRED of London he is tired of Life! For there is in London all that life can afford (Samuel Johnson). For all travel arrangements consult Boswell & Johnson Travel Service, Dryden Chambers, 119 Oxford Street, London, W.1.

SAMARKAND, Tashkent, Alma Ata, Bukhara, Stalinabad, Tbilisi, Sukhumi, Kiev, Leningrad, Moscow, Black Sea, the Caucasus, Irkutsk in Siberia, East and West Berlin, Warsaw and Vienna are yours to explore on Cities of Central Asia Air Tour. This and 20 other imaginative off-the-beaten-trail adventures to seldom-seen lands are illustrated in new, 56-page Maupintour travel book. Ask your Travel Agent for your free copy or write Maupintour, 400 Madison Avenue, New York City. No obligation.

JOIN CARIBBEAN CRUISE. 150 foot schooner sails to Bimini, Abaco, Berry Islands, Grand Bahama, Nassau. Ten days of adventure. $175. Sailing, fishing, skin-diving. WINDJAMMER CRUISES, INC., P.O. Box 1051-Z, Miami Beach 39, Florida. Miami Beach phone: JEfferson 2-3407.

WHEN YOU'RE IN NEW YORK, the greatest vacation city in the world, stay at Beekman Tower Hotel and make the most of it! Magnificent views . . . delightful accommodations . . . wonderful location. Best of all, you can afford it! Enjoy cocktails in the famous Top o' the Tower Cocktail Lounge (26 stories high in the sky!) and dinner in the Turtle Bay Dining Room. Rates for single rooms with semi-private bath as low as $6.50. Group rates available. If you're driving to New York, write BEEKMAN TOWER HOTEL, 49th Street, at First Avenue (3 Mitchell Place), New York 17, New York for SR map showing how to avoid city traffic.

ESCORTED EUROPEAN TOURS from 2-32 days. Continent, Spain, Scandinavia, Great Britain. Write for attractive brochures. Frames Tours Ltd. (established 1881), 114 East 32nd Street, New York. Bookings ONLY through Travel Agents.

KASHMIR, NEPAL, DARJEELING, INDIA—Jet around the world, summer holiday in the Himalayas, Europe, Middle East, Orient. ALSO comprehensive air-auto tour of India December-January 1961-62. American escort. MARGARET CROWNE, 1251 Wellesley Avenue, Los Angeles 25, California.

EUROPE 1961, BUDGET-WISE CIRCLE TOURS: Tenth anniversary folders ready describing creatively planned group programs visiting 12-19 countries in 37-56 days. Prices with trans-Atlantic tourist steamship $1,160-$1,595. Air passage optional. 36 departures April-September. DITTMANN TOURS, Northfield, Minnesota.

CHARMING GRAMERCY PARK—Attractive singles and doubles. Newly decorated. PARKSIDE HOTEL, 18 Gramercy Park South, NYC. Transients $4.50 and up. Moderate weekly-monthly rates. GRamercy 5-6000.

EUROPE. 1961 Summer Tours: 46-61 days in Europe, 14-18 countries, from $1,233. For complete information, write directly: Prof. L. Knecht, KNIGHT TOURS (S-R), Box 350, Northfield, Minnesota.

FOUR WINDS CRUISES you "Round-The-World" for 56 days, $1,995 up. Paris, Riviera, Middle East, India, Japan, and many more. Air-conditioned liners. First-class hotels. Fare includes ALL transportation, ALL land arrangements. 49 departure dates, eastbound from New York or westbound from San Francisco. Write Four Winds Travel, 1004 Flatiron Building, New York 10, New York.

EXCITING SUMMER EUROPEAN TOUR, congenial group, $1,095. Mr. Ferero, G.W.U., Washington, D.C.

SHORT TOUR OF SPAIN, FRANCE, ENGLAND by station wagon. June 15th-July 12th, 25 days of leisurely travel. See Alhambra, Toledo, high Pyrenees, Mont St. Michel, English Lakes. $995. Write Dr. Donald Brown, Hope College, Holland, Michigan.

TOUR THE DRAMA-MUSIC FESTIVALS of Europe with The University of Wisconsin's summer tour, July 4th-August 15th. $1,795. For details write Robert Schacht, Room 204, University of Wisconsin Extension Division, Madison 6.

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KINGSLEY DOUBLE-CROSTIC NO. 1400

Reg. U.S. Patent Office

By Doris Nash Wortman

DEFINITIONS	WORDS
A. One of two dates (see Word I) from the Anglican Church calendar frequently cited in English stories.	187 110 13 58 196 215 155
B. Without bias in favor of one side as against any other.	202 201 161 208 96 1 179 108 144
C. Bequests.	14 206 177 78 54 100 130 165
D. What the lucky person is said to land on (2 wds.).	65 167 90 205 10 216 173 95
E. Secret; sly; often fraudulent.	92 172 149 120 70 99 42 183 64
F. Rice cooked with meat and gravy, or with cheese (borrowed from Italian).	214 17 181 158 139 126 85
G. Service of the material known as pellon in dressmaking (not in WNI).	184 141 176 136 203 151 212 107 91
H. Two words sounding like the antonym of Word E but meaning control (2 wds.).	97 4 39 49 106 94 36 24 153
I. Another such as Word A.	7 81 119 185 67 210 43 12 122 128
J. A sovereign.	40 189 44 55 31 98 74 135 89
K. Showing more teeth	109 82 162 87 199 132 186 71
L. German bacteriologist of many achievements, notably a method of determining between human and animal blood (1870-1957).	211 115 170 63 53 2 195 32 175
M. Part of Shakespeare's description of man's characteristic stance, as a gay deceiver ("Much Ado"; 4 wds.).	57 180 142 84 169 30 213 51 21 8 192 38
N. Nickname for a world gov't, transferred from that of an old meat inspector during one of its wars (2 wds.).	35 152 194 138 27 79 105 159
O. Commentator.	114 168 88 117 37 154 147 101 62
P. Mean or undignified; trivial; burlesque.	129 171 73 156 197 26 191 143
Q. Mistaken; wandering from the right.	41 188 209 127 148 133
R. Specifying the kind of motor in one of the moderately powerful cars popular today (comp.).	150 59 47 29 66 174 125 83 124 3 104
S. To a balletomane, *les pointes*.	146 20 77 190 103 160 121
T. Geologist's word for general equilibrium in the Earth's crust.	33 102 72 22 166 28 157 207
U. The sounding of a wind instrument.	198 23 9 93 111 34 178
V. "Russia's granary."	137 19 86 61 145 75 116
W. Describing the "hills" in America.	204 200 56 48 131 163 16
X. Portal of Sleep through which issue the dreams which do not come true (2 wds.).	123 60 182 50 15 113 25 76 6
Y. English mariner with Drake in Cent. Amer. hanged by Spaniards in Peru.	5 193 52 112 134 69 164
Z. Precious part of many experimental rockets sent into space (2 wds.).	118 140 80 11 18 45 68 46

DIRECTIONS

To solve this puzzle you must guess twenty-odd WORDS, the definitions of which are given in the column headed DEFINITIONS. Alongside each definition, there is a row of dashes—one for each letter in the required word. When you have guessed a word, write it on the dashes, and also write each letter in the correspondingly numbered square of the puzzle diagram. . . . When the squares are all filled in, you will find that you have completed a quotation from some published work. If read up and down, the letters in the diagram have no meaning. . . . Black squares indicate ends of words; if there is no black square at the right side of the diagram, the word carries over to the next line . . . When all the WORDS are filled in, their initial letters spell the name of the author and the title of the piece from which the quotation has been taken. Of great help to the solver are this acrostic feature and the relative shapes of words in the diagram as they develop. Authority for spellings and definitions is Webster's New International Dictionary, Second Edition.

			1 B	2 L	3 R		4 H	5 Y	6 X	7 I	8 M		9 U	10 D		11 Z	12 I
13 A	14 C	15 X		16 W	17 F	18 Z	19 V	20 S	21 M	22 T	23 U	24 H		25 X	26 P	27 N	
28 T		29 R	30 M	31 J	32 L	33 T	34 U	35 N	36 H	37 O		38 M	39 H	40 J	41 Q	42 E	43 I
	44 J	45 Z		46 Z	47 R	48 W	49 H	50 X	51 M	52 Y	53 L	54 C	55 J		56 W	57 M	58 A
59 R	60 X	61 V	62 O	63 L	64 E		65 D	66 R		67 I	68 Z		69 Y	70 E	71 K	72 T	73 P
74 J	75 V	76 X		77 S	78 C	79 N	80 Z	81 I	82 K	83 R		84 M	85 F	86 V		87 K	88 O
89 J		90 D	91 G	92 E	93 U	94 H		95 D	96 B	97 H	98 J	99 E		100 C	101 O		102 T
103 S		104 R	105 N	106 H	107 G		108 B		109 K	110 A	111 U	112 Y	113 X		114 O	115 L	116 V
	117 O	118 Z	119 I	120 E		121 S	122 I	123 X	124 R		125 R	126 F		127 Q	128 I		129 P
130 C	131 W	132 K	133 Q	134 Y	135 J	136 G	137 V	138 N		139 F	140 Z		141 G	142 M	143 P	144 B	
145 V	146 S		147 O	148 Q	149 E		150 R	151 G	152 N	153 H	154 O	155 A	156 P		157 T	158 F	159 N
160 S		161 B	162 K	163 W	164 Y	165 C		166 T	167 D		168 O	169 M	170 L	171 P	172 E	173 D	174 R
	175 L	176 G	177 C	178 U	179 B	180 M	181 F	182 X	183 E		184 G	185 I	186 K		187 A	188 Q	189 J
190 S	191 P		192 M	193 Y	194 N	195 L	196 A	197 P		198 U	199 K	200 W	201 B		202 B	203 G	
204 W	205 D	206 C	207 T		208 B	209 Q	210 I		211 L	212 G	213 M	214 F	215 A	216 D			

Solution of last week's Double-Crostic will be found on page 18 of this issue.

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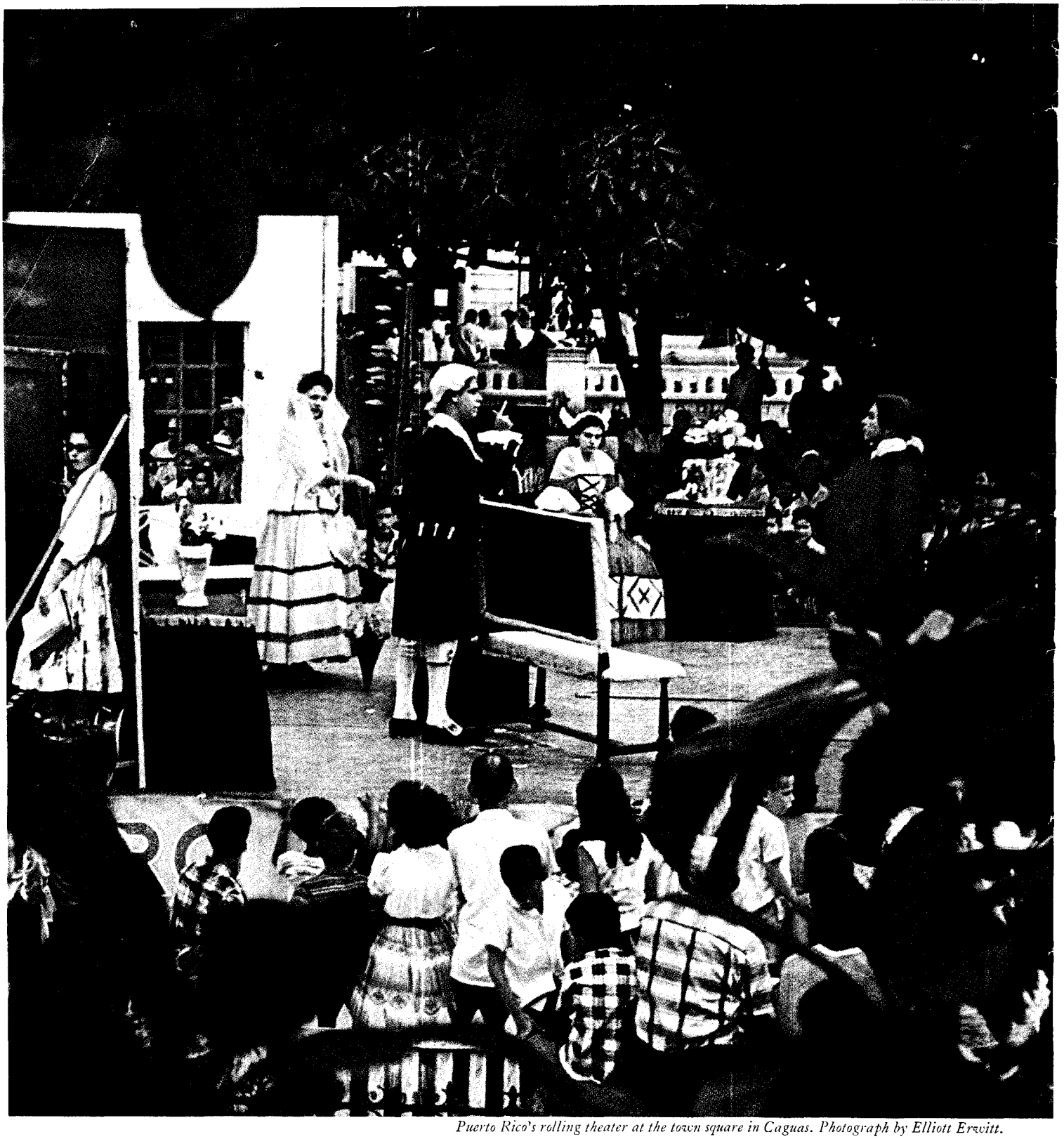

Puerto Rico's rolling theater at the town square in Caguas. Photograph by Elliott Erwitt.

Puerto Rico puts a little theater on wheels

PUERTO RICANS call it their *Teatro Rodante*. Their rolling theater. The stage is a truck. The auditorium is a town square. And the audience is the man in the street.

Like so many other brave ventures in this lively Commonwealth, the *Teatro Rodante* was born at the University of Puerto Rico. It is run entirely by unpaid students. Their one aim: to bring the joys of the stage to thousands of rural people who have never seen a play before.

You will meet this theater in fishing villages, in mountain towns, or even on sugar plantations. But don't expect the players to pander for popular applause. They offer nothing but great plays—Chekhov, Cervantes and Molière are part of their repertory. And the audience loves every moment of it.

It takes vision to arrange such programs for uninitiated audiences. It also takes faith in the native wit of simple men. Puerto Rico has that faith.

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